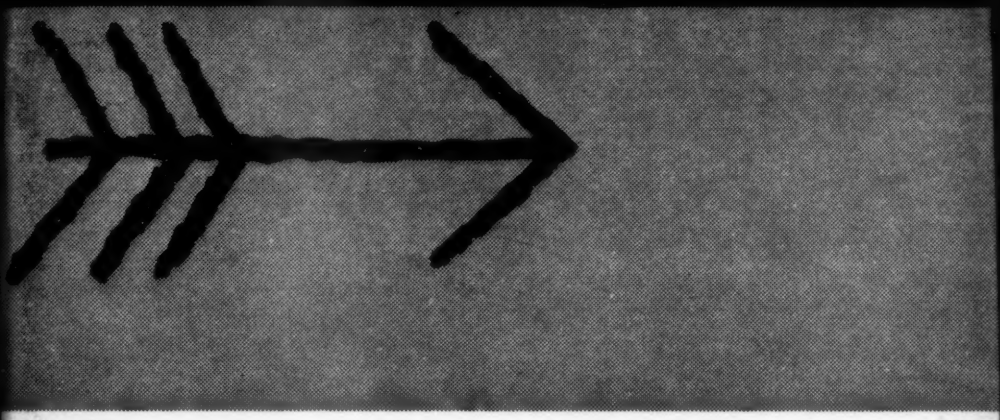
TRENDS IN EDUCATION



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Pupils as People
Small Comprehensives
A Morality for Schools
Teaching Human Biology
A Place for Poetry
English in College
Teaching Practice
Junior Workshop

APRIL 1971

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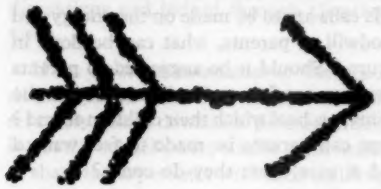

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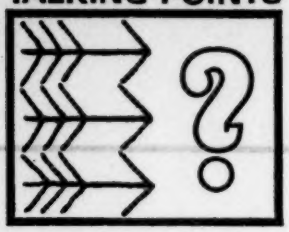
TALKING POINTS



By Question Master

Parents in the Primary School

Is there anything parents can do to help the primary schools?

A school in SE London listed 16 alternatives in a questionnaire which was sent to all parents. This initiative was the starting point for some notable developments which have brought parents into the life of the school at many points. Both home and school benefited. As a result of the Plowden report many more primary school heads have become convinced of the need to foster closer relations with parents. In their view it is no longer acceptable to leave parents alone, only asking in return that the parents should stand by the tacit bargain in their relations to the school. The Home and School Council set up in 1967, the *Parent/Teacher Relations Survey* issued by the DES in 1968, McGeeney's *Parents are Welcome* published in 1969 and the NFER's *School and Home* (1970) have helped in recent years to stimulate a movement which has acquired momentum both from the practical experience of heads and from some important research studies. In place of the legendary line across the playground, the real or symbolic high iron railings, what have we now got?—some schools certainly where efforts to construct more fruitful relationships have been carried a long way, some unconvinced, some where there is a wish to do more, but so far no established means of doing so.

A discerning head has little difficulty in identifying the needs of parents. That written reports alone or the opportunity to talk with teachers in a crowd at Open Days are inadequate as a means of meeting them is widely recognised. A more positive approach often starts from the assumption that parents can help the school. Such help can be personal and direct, not merely a matter of contributing to school funds and supporting school functions.

If calls are to be made on the energy and goodwill of parents, what can be done in return? Should it be suggested to parents that they are free and welcome to visit the primary school which their children attend? How can parents be made to feel wanted and at ease when they do come?

At the school to which I have referred these questions have been carefully considered. It was realised that preparation and careful planning were necessary, that the whole staff of the school had a point of view, so that a united front was essential. It was considered important that the staff should be willing to visit the children's homes though in fact few parents asked for this. The school was fortunate in having space available on the premises for parents to meet each other and organise their corporate contribution to school needs. In this school there is not only a door labelled Staff Room but another labelled Parents Room. A step was taken which is still a bold one—setting aside an afternoon in the week when parents can take part in the work of the school, helping with handwork activities, listening to children reading, making costumes, and so on. Parents play a part in the school library, in the out-of-school clubs, in school sport, in outings, expeditions and entertainments. The school's magazine contains extremely interesting contributions from parents alongside those from teachers and children.

All this depends on the establishment of good initial relationships at the point when the parent first meets the head of the school, to be followed by regular meetings, both formal and completely informal. In such a situation a school may help its parents to contribute to the education of their children. They may be influenced in matters such as the provision of play materials at home as well as children's reading and TV viewing. One LEA has recently experimented with the allocation

of funds to schools for purchase of books which are loaned to parents for reading aloud at home. On issues such as the 'new' mathematics, sex education, secondary school allocation, the teaching of reading and many more, parents can be better informed through demonstrations, talks and discussions and indeed through classroom visits.

If an issue as mundane as the school dinner or as elevated as the morning assembly raises doubts in parental minds, is not the school's best course an invitation to share the experience with their children?

More Means More What?

Trying to plan the growth of higher education on some sort of rational basis is not an exclusively British occupation at this time. Last September civil servants and academics met for five days in Bad Godesberg for a prolonged seminar organised by the Federal Republic and the Council of Europe. Joined by representatives both of Council of Europe countries and visitors from Eastern Europe, they grappled with some tough problems. How rapidly should higher education grow between now and 1980? In what sort of institutions, doing what sort of work? Might there be more graduates turned out than society had need for? And what sort of relations might be aimed at between gown and town in planning new institutions, if any?

West Germany apparently (in common with some other European countries) faces a projected doubling of places, to one million, in all sectors between now and 1980. It has been estimated that 20 new universities will need to be built during the next decade, in addition to the 13 new ones which have recently been created. Twenty-five per cent of the relevant age groups are planned to participate in higher education; and the share of GNP devoted to higher education is expected to rise from 1.5 per cent to 3 per cent.

The chosen instrument of several *Lander* is the 'comprehensive university', the *Gesamthochschule*. It will combine institutions of university, polytechnic and college-of-education type, either, in a horizontal structure (three or more institutions side-by-side with a fair degree of interchange) or a vertical structure (courses at a lower level, followed, for those suited to them, by courses at a higher, i.e. university level). A system of units and credits on the American pattern (*Baukasten* or building-blocks) will enable a student, under guidance, to choose a personal curriculum built up out of the various subjects and levels of course available. In general these *Gesamthochschulen* will be built up as entirely new institutions, but in the Land of North Rhine-Westphalia some of them will be based on existing colleges of education.

There were plenty of questions to discuss. How far should all institutions within a 'comprehensive university' be engaged in research work? Would the units-credits system of courses be too flexible for effective manpower planning and yet too closely administratively defined to meet the students' needs? Problems of size and organisation as they affect the student participation issue were also examined at length. The *Gesamthochschulen* planned in several *Lander* are intended to meet some of the problems which currently complicate higher education planning; not least the rigid structure of courses (leading to a long effective length of course and a high drop-out rate) and the lack of a clear admissions policy (at present almost any course in any university is open to any school-leaver who has passed the *Abitur*).

It appears that an attempt is being made at a sophisticated approach to manpower forecasting, taking into account the changing pattern of manpower needs in the light of technological developments; it is recognised that such forecasts cannot be based on a simple assumption of the non-interchangeability of factors of production (manpower apparently needed, in the light of present knowledge, in 1980 may be replaceable by computers by that time). There was much discussion of the problem of excessive supply of over-qualified

graduates in certain professions which affects Germany as well as other countries; investigations into manpower demand based on graduates' earnings suggest that there (as in the UK) higher degrees are not 'worth' much more to the economy than first degrees, yet the university system is geared to producing doctorates. It was noted also that, in an increasingly planned society, manpower demand is as much a question of policy as of projection; society can decide its own goals and determine the relative needs for, say, doctors and engineers.

It is interesting in this context that in the latest UGC returns the proportion of first degree graduates entering employment in the United Kingdom fell below those that went on to further study, that this was against the trend observed in earlier years, and that the proportion still seeking permanent employment was increasing.

One visit made during the conference showed the participants in microcosm the problems of the German university system and the attempts to meet it. They saw a university planned and built by the most sophisticated 'systems' methods, yet already, when only 40 per cent completed, forced to house more than the total number for which it was planned. They saw attempts at new departmental organisation, curriculum planning and teaching methods, which yet failed to solve the problem of 'alienation'. They saw a concept of unification between town and gown based on the creation of a 'university suburb', and yet little real interaction between the two sectors. Those most closely concerned were by no means agreed upon the best ways of tackling these and other problems.

The Games People Play

The use of simulation games in teaching is a relatively new idea to which increasing attention is being paid, chiefly in management education. Many firms develop their own games to train staff, some, but not all, keep quiet about the methods they use.

A recent publication *Guide to Simulation Games for Education and Training** lists 135 published business games, classified as industrial, financial and general management. The guide includes over 400 games of all kinds but many of them are only available in the USA. The games included in the guide are defined as activities undertaken by a player or players whose actions are constrained by a set of explicit rules particular to that game, and by a predetermined end-point.

The lists include the so-called In-basket exercises and educational puzzles other than action mazes that were thought to be merely sophisticated forms of programmed instruction.

Games listed under history (twenty-nine) are mostly war games—*Battle of the Bulge*, *D-Day*, *Waterloo*, and those classified under geography (eight games) mostly concentrate on conservation. Games designed to improve literacy (thirty are listed) include old friends like *Scrabble* and *Lotto*. Again how many of the other twenty-eight one can get in Britain is not clear. The guide's compilers David Zuckerman and Paul Twelker estimate that the 400 games they have listed make up about one-third of those at present in use in education and training in the USA.

The present development of games for use in education has three different heritages: the simulator for training, the game for entertainment and role-playing—the practice of experiencing the actions and feelings of someone else.

Games can best be developed where there is a situation of strife, where the number of facts to be assimilated is relatively small, and where attitude changes will produce noticeable and measurable results.

Gaming and role-playing are as old as civilisation; it is only the simulation aspect that belongs to the twentieth century.

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*Published by Information Resources Inc. 1675, Massachusetts Ave., Cambridge, Mass., USA.

Large schools are trying various ways of meeting the personal and social needs of their pupils. The author gives a general account of the subject.

Personal Needs in Large Schools

P. F. SMART

P. F. Smart joined HM Inspectorate in 1963 and was from 1967 until 1969 a member of the committee on organisation and management of schools, where his special interest was pastoral and social organisation.

The planning and administration of comprehensive schools continue to be hampered by a lack of definition in their social aims and by a lack of firm agreement concerning the secondary school as a community. There has been understandable preoccupation with the problem of how to break down the school community into identifiable and manageable social units, when little was known about the value of different types of grouping in existing schools. There was a tendency, still not uncommon, to regard social organisation as a problem of separate grouping to compensate for the impersonality of size and for the segregation of pupils by ability; in some schools where the House system is intended to fulfil this function, each of the streamed or banded classes in which pupils may spend most of their time sets its own standards of attendance, behaviour and attitude.

Recently, horizontal divisions into 'years' have gained in popularity, but sometimes without sufficient consideration of their social implications; the acceptability of a 'year tutor' may well depend on the extent to which the 'year' is a social unit, with its own assemblies, dining arrangements, games, and grouped form or tutorial rooms. Heads who have introduced mixed-ability teaching groups have done so partly because they believe that this may be the most efficient organisation for teaching pupils aged 11 or 12, or for teaching children of average and below average ability; partly because they wished to improve the expectations of staff and the attitudes of children in lower streams, partly because they wished to give reality to mixed pastoral groups and to mitigate the restless instability of settings. There are signs that whatever the academic effects good social results have not infrequently ensued. But decisions on matters of this kind have had to be taken without reliable evidence of the ways in which teachers influence their pupils, the extent to which friendship groupings are affected by formal and informal organisations inside the school, and the influence pupils have on each other when efficiently grouped together.

The vital importance of social influences, arising both within and outside the school, is apparent in any consideration of dull or disadvantaged children in adolescence. If a lack of family life is characteristic of many homes and a headmaster wishes the school to compensate for this, he naturally considers what organisation will best provide pupils with a focus for loyalties and communal activities.

Organisation for Pastoral Care

When a school is committed to accepting all pupils in an age-group, except those directed to special schools, it is obliged to make provision for the care of some who may suffer from some physical, emotional or social disadvantage. The wide variety of courses and styles of teaching

provided for pupils of all abilities to ensure equality of opportunity, makes necessary some definite arrangement for guidance, and there is a sense in which all the work of getting to know pupils can be a preparation for this; the numbers of pupils and staff make necessary some definite arrangement for co-ordination. Some of the findings of psychologists and sociologists are directly relevant, for instance on parental attitudes as a major factor in the pupil's performance in school or on the exercise of choice as an important experience for all pupils in the process of growing up.

The development of an accepted professional practice in welfare and guidance has been complicated by inevitable variations in local systems and provision, including staffing, but also by misleading terminology and the well-intentioned language of enthusiasm—the phrase 'pastoral care' is variously, not always respectfully, interpreted—and by variation in the aims specified. In the NFER survey, only five of the 262 schools declaring a house system specifically mentioned individual care for each child as its main purpose. On the other hand 86 per cent gave 'personal relationships' and 76 per cent 'administration' as the main purpose of tutor groups. Just as all members of staff are in a sense teachers of English, so also they all have responsibility and opportunities for establishing good personal relationships with pupils and getting to understand their needs. On the other hand, the school, through at least one or two teachers, needs to know individual pupils as well as is possible in the school situation. Outside the school, a number of other agencies have important responsibilities for the pupil's welfare and guidance at both primary and secondary stages, and the school's internal organisation needs to be fashioned not only to take full advantage of their expert services as members of the team but also to make the fullest contribution towards them.

The routine tasks of welfare and guidance may be listed as follows:

a. Liaison with parents before and during the pupil's school career; providing suitable accommodation and sufficient time to cope with this, and the encouragement of shy parents, are major problems. In some areas even the most favourable conditions of continuity and commitment fail to ensure the required liaison, and some schools have difficulty in allocating responsibility for making contact.

b. Liaison with contributory primary schools. This frequently involves visits by the head or members of staff to see pupils in primary schools and to discuss individuals with teachers and heads. (But where parents have a free choice of secondary school, the number of primary schools may make this difficult, and heads may be chary of appearing to compete for pupils.)

c. Collaboration and correspondence with social and welfare agencies outside the school in providing for cases of exceptional need. There are some excellent examples of collaboration, e.g. with education welfare officers, children's care committees, and police liaison officers, especially where officers visit the school frequently and regularly and are accepted as colleagues by the teaching staff. In some areas, joint case-discussions have proved highly successful.

d. Daily personal contact with groups of pupils, getting to know them as individuals, and ensuring their personal (and perhaps

academic) progress and discipline. To create an uncomplicated, non-abrasive organisation for this is one of the most important and difficult problems of the large school.

e. Recording and exchanging information concerning individual pupils; to ensure, for example, that a change of form teacher or tutor does not mean a complete break in the school's personal knowledge, particularly in the third and fourth year.

f. Educational guidance, at times of decision, especially in years III, V, VI, for pupils and parents.

g. Vocational guidance, reference of enquiries, co-ordination of assessments, collaboration with the youth employment service.

The extent to which a school attains such a programme will depend as much on philosophy as on efficiency and staffing. Home-visiting raises issues on which the profession is sharply divided, but evidently there are situations in which the co-operation of parents is best secured through home-visiting by a select group of experienced teachers.

Vertical and Horizontal Systems

For a LEA planning a reorganisation or a new comprehensive school, a decision on the framework of organisation for social and welfare arrangements has to be made at an early stage. Comparisons between horizontal and vertical types of pastoral organisation need to be made. Each main type includes a number of important variables—the quality and scope of pastoral work at various levels, the age-range of tutorial groups, the size of houses or year groups, the quality of the buildings. All these make qualitative comparisons difficult, but some generalisations are possible:

a. A house-system is usually intended to provide a social microcosm of the whole school. Given suitable buildings, it can be used as the basis for dining, recreational activities and training in responsibility, with a more ambitious programme of general education and social training than is readily provided by a horizontal system. On the other hand, the head who runs a horizontal system of pastoral care will have to decide whether to make the year (or even the form) his main social unit; or whether he needs to retain a house system for purely social purposes including 'social mixing', friendly competition in games and other activities and recreational facilities in the early morning and after school.

b. A house-system can be expensive in staff expertise and responsibility allowances. For example, with an 8 form entry 11-18 school, 8 houses of 150-170 will use eight experienced teachers and 'B' or 'C' allowances, except where a housemaster is also leading a subject department (though this is questionable on other grounds). A year system might cost only five or six year tutors of similar calibre. An horizontal organisation may allow a more flexible use of the talents and experience of senior staff.

c. Since it is sometimes difficult to appoint housemasters and year heads without drawing on teachers who already have other major responsibility, some teachers may be given excessive assignments, in which usually their departmental administration suffers.

d. In a house-system especially there is sometimes evidence of a

dichotomy between the pastoral and academic organisations; there may also be embarrassing variations of procedure, ethos and quality. Neither of these threats to unity and central control is so likely in a horizontally organised school, where the year tutor's responsibilities may include oversight of the curriculum and of academic progress.

e. Houses may allow a longer continuity than is normally possible in a horizontal system. Allied with the greater degree of delegation normal in house systems, this degree of continuity will allow very close personal contacts between staff and pupils (as well as an economy in contacts with parents of pupils in more than one age-group).

f. A horizontal system with static year tutors and/or heads of schools may allow senior staff to develop and use expertise in welfare and guidance to a greater degree than is likely in house systems, especially in years I, III and IV.

g. House systems may well give heads more scope to encourage teamwork and good attitudes amongst staff involved in pastoral work. Properly led, a house team can greatly help newcomers, especially probationer teachers.

h. Whatever the organisation, basic pastoral units of about thirty pupils, involving a large proportion of the staff, are inevitable.

Academic and Pastoral Organisation

For a head asked to reorganise an existing secondary school or to open a new comprehensive, a question of cardinal importance is to what extent, if at all, he is to base his arrangements for welfare and guidance on his academic organisation. If the staff are able and willing to teach pupils in groups of mixed ability, there are strong arguments for linking the responsibility for teaching and welfare work in this way, especially where the form teacher or tutor is prepared to teach his group in more than one subject.

If banding or streaming is adopted for teaching purposes, the head has to decide whether this stimulates teachers to take a sufficiently broad view of individual pupils, especially those with learning or social difficulties. In a number of schools, houses, with their random mixtures of academic ability and social background, are designed to supply this corrective. But such an organisation can prevent the house tutor from knowing many of his group at first hand through teaching; this is considered by many a serious disadvantage, especially for new members of staff. Where the form is made the basic pastoral unit in a streamed or banded school, organised in year groups, it seems particularly important to ensure that as many form teachers as possible are timetabled to teach their own groups; given this arrangement, the traditional form-teacher system can still achieve good standards in personal relationships, welfare and stability. The problem of ensuring co-ordinated assessment and guidance of individual pupils' progress in the vertically organised school has led some heads to appoint additional teachers with responsibility for one-, two- or three-year groups.

Problems of Middle Management

The number of teachers holding posts of middle management with

pastoral responsibility for houses, years, and lower and middle schools, is now much increased. The extent of their responsibilities and problems seem worth reviewing.

a. They have a large measure of delegated responsibility for the welfare and progress of pupils of all abilities for at least a year and sometimes for the whole of a pupil's school career. This invariably involves contact with parents.

b. In some respects their disciplinary powers are often nearly equivalent to head's but inside the framework of school policy.

c. They are responsible for interpreting major features of school policy to other members of staff, including probationer teachers, and for co-ordinating their pastoral work.

d. They are frequently responsible for devising and maintaining day-to-day routines affecting both staff and pupils; sometimes including responsibility for a whole building.

Appropriate procedures in these matters are now well established in many schools. In others the complex problems of the job, sometimes accentuated by poor working conditions, severely test the dedication, stamina and vision of experienced teachers. Some are over-inclined to rely on informal contact to discuss individual cases and problems of policy and procedure. Some, especially in new or newly reorganised schools, lack a sufficiently clear brief from headmasters, who may themselves be feeling their way, or reluctant to spell out the assignment to professional colleagues.

Few of the teachers with these responsibilities have enough non-teaching time to carry them out to their own satisfaction; some are seriously overworked. It is not at all uncommon to find a housemaster, responsible for 150-200 pupils, with a teaching load of 27 or 28 out of 35 periods per week, and perhaps with non-teaching periods unevenly spaced and rarely coinciding with the daily moments of crisis and decision in the early morning. Clerical and other non-teaching assistance (e.g. for first-aid) is seldom provided for them, and without proper accommodation for administration and interviewing, work of this kind is often unduly exhausting and frustrating. It is not surprising if many, even of the ablest teachers in such posts, are continually worried about priorities in the use of their time, notably in personal interviewing and counselling.

Arrangements for Guidance

In many schools, guidance is now viewed as an important aid to the pupil's development. In recent years, under the stimulus of the Newsom report (and to a lesser degree the Albemarle report on the future of the youth employment service) a broader conception of vocational guidance, seen as part of the school's total curriculum, has been gaining ground. Any assessment of a school's provision for vocational guidance must take into account its courses of preparation for the world of work as well as the provision of information outside the classroom. Among the more basic problems of heads are these: how to strike a just balance between careers courses and individual guidance; how to assess the contribution required from the youth employment service, as members of the careers team and to arrange for effective co-ordination of all the school's activities in this field; how to ensure a sufficient specialist expertise at the different levels in the

school and to encourage pupils to use the services provided. Finally the head has to relate the arrangements for vocational guidance to the main organisation for welfare.

In horizontal systems, with teachers expert in the problems of a particular age group, and with a natural link between academic and pastoral work, it has proved possible for some heads of middle school and upper school and year tutors to play a significant part in the careers team and the work of educational guidance.

By tradition, teachers in England are ready to listen to pupils who have personal problems affecting their happiness and performance in school. It is claimed, for example, that in a house system the pupil knows to whom he may turn in difficulty. However, it is well known that pupils will choose their own counsellor irrespective of the school's arrangements, and in mid-adolescence there are some pupils who, however well-adjusted previously and provided for at home, resist even the most benevolent paternalism in school. In some, perhaps most, schools there is need for additional arrangements for personal counselling of a non-judgmental kind either as part of the main organisation or outside it. Coupled with this need, some schools consider that heads of years and houses need to be able to refer cases of extreme difficulty to a member of staff with a specialist interest, expertise, and time for the job. Thus the trained counsellor has made an appearance in some secondary schools. However, this development is slow and tentative because any specific arrangements for personal guidance carry implications for the aims of the school and the role of the teacher. There is conflict of opinion amongst teachers whether a counsellor should have teaching duties, which imply a part in the school's authority–structure. Unless the school is peculiarly free from discipline problems, the pupils may be confused by a clash of values in authoritarian and non-authoritarian approaches; in its most acute form this can already be seen in the role-conflict of a counsellor who is also a housemaster *and* a teacher of geography.

Problems of Form Teachers and Tutors

Whatever the main structure, the pastoral work of the school is as good as its tutors or form teachers, but the organisation, the amount of time allowed and the guidance given them can make a difference to their chances of success. A confusion of aims—pastoral, social, training for leisure—can bedevil many of the occasions, including 'tutor periods', set aside for teachers to be with their own groups. Registration time needs to be more than a hurried three minutes morning and afternoon, and much can depend on this one factor if the form teacher is to get to know individuals. The form teacher or tutor himself will need to have a clear conception of how far he is responsible for discipline and attitudes, checking academic progress, giving initial careers guidance or discussing careers topics, investigating absence and getting to know the pupil's home background. Especially where the organisation places emphasis on the tutorial role, for example by giving him continuing responsibility for the same pupils year by year, the thoroughness with which he carries out his duties especially before the internal transfer of pupils, and when the selection of courses and subjects takes place, is all-important. A positive policy of team work and discussion is essential in a large school. Where pastoral and academic organisations are separate, the problems of communicating and interpreting factual

information may be formidable, especially for the tutor who needs to be informed of the academic progress of pupils of different ages and abilities, most of whom he does not teach.

For many teachers at the present time, swift changes and developments in the subject-matter, style, and ability-range of their classroom practice pose a sufficient challenge, without the additional problems of an extended pastoral role. Nevertheless there is a general feeling that schools need to provide for this, and indeed there are often quite elaborate arrangements for welfare and guidance. It is clear, however, that this area of work raises issues of importance and concern to the teaching profession. Is it a part of the job to which all members of staff need to devote thought, energy and time, or is it enough that only, say, a two-thirds majority should conscientiously carry out pastoral duties, while others are uncommitted? To what extent should guidance be part of the tutor's or form teacher's responsibilities? How professional, how expert, do such teachers need to become in the techniques of interviewing, consultation, case-conferences and documentation?

As the leaving age rises the work of welfare and guidance becomes even more important, and the role of the tutor more difficult and crucial. There are signs that schools will be called upon to devote even more attention to contacts with parents and other outside agencies. Such developments seem bound to offer a continuing challenge not only to the skill and teamwork but even to the professional commitment of all teachers in secondary schools.

Small comprehensives can have advantages as well as disadvantages. This article, which brings out some favourable points, will be followed by other and sometimes different views.

The Small Comprehensive School

ELIZABETH HALSALL

Elizabeth Halsall taught in grammar schools for many years and then researched on the teaching of modern languages as Leon Fellow of the University of London. For the past five years Dr. Halsall has lectured in comparative and secondary education at the University of Hull.

The question of size of school is one which did not seriously come into the foreground of educational thinking in this country until the advent of the comprehensive school. At that point it was presumed that to be successful (and success was evaluated in terms of a viable sixth form) the comprehensive school had to be a large one; it was supposed that it might contain about 2,000 pupils. Implicit in this assumption, though never really brought out clearly, was the idea that comprehensive school staying-on rates would be no higher than grammar school staying-on rates for the same IQ level of pupil and that the latter themselves would not increase. Both these assumptions should have been critically reviewed in the light of, for example, the experience of American schools, though whether at the time the idea that all pupils should be allowed to stay on if they wished to would have been acceptable to many educationists is doubtful. Large comprehensive schools were therefore built and an association between the idea of comprehension and the idea of an 'educational factory' was established in the public mind.

Meanwhile, almost *sub rosa*, a certain number of one- and two-stream country grammar schools were going first bi-lateral and then comprehensive, whatever the exact nomenclature bestowed on them in the LEA guidebooks of the day. That in time the protagonists of the selective system and equally those who had worked in or organised the new large comprehensive schools should question the viability of small comprehensive schools is an indication of the prejudicing power both of particular words and of particular city- and suburban-bound experiences. Comprehensive began to be re-defined in terms not only of taking in whole age groups but also of providing a vast range of subjects, as the large comprehensive schools were able to do.

Yet no-one had really questioned earlier the viability of small grammar schools as purveyors of a reasonably adequate curriculum for the academically-gifted children of the small communities they existed to serve. They were able to get their students to O- and A-levels, and in the latter case in a sufficient range of subjects to allow a reasonable choice of disciplines at university. Both the NFER interim report on comprehensive schools and the Benn and Simon survey have shown that we are likely always to have a number of comprehensive schools below, in some cases well below, the 6 F.E. minimum originally recommended by the D.E.S. Are they really viable?

The time-table analysis below shows what can be done in range of curriculum even in a three form entry school where with 20 per cent staying on, there might be 490 pupils and a staff ratio of 26.5.

Time-table for Three Form Entry School

	Year 1		Year 2		Year 3		
RE	2		2		2		
English	6		6		6		
Mathematics	5		5		5		
History	3		3		3		
Geography	3		3		3		
Music	2		2		2		
General Science	5		5		5		
French/Remedial Work	French	5	French	5	French	5	Remedial work 6
Art	3	3		3	3		Rotated*
Woodwork/Metalwork or Needlework/Dom. Science	3	3		3	3		
PE	3	3	3	3	3		3
	40	9	34	9	40		9

**Girls* Art, Needlework; Dom. Sci., Needlework; Art, Dom. Sci.
Boys Art, Woodwork; Metalwork, Woodwork; Art, Metalwork.

Programme for Form 4

G.C.E.		*C.S.E.*		*Newsom*	
RE	2	RE	2	RE	2
Eng.	6	Eng.	7	Eng.	7
Maths.	6	Maths.	6	Maths.	6
Music	3	Tech. Draw.	3	Light Craft	3
Physics	4	History	3	History	4
Chem.	4	Science	5	Woodwork	4
Biol.	4	Woodwork	4	Metalwork	4
French	6	Metalwork	4	Science	5
PE	3	Art+Design	4	PE	3
Music	2	Geography	4	Music	2
	40	PE	3		40
		Music	2		
			47		
Art	3	Commerce	5	Arts Design	3
Hist.	4	Needlework	4	Needlework	4
Geog.	4	Domestic Sci.	4	Domestic Sci.	4
Latin	4				
Commerce (Shorthand)	6				
	21		13		11

Programme for Form 5

G.C.E.	*C.S.E.*	*Newsom*	
		RE	2
		Eng.	7
		Maths.	6
		Light Craft	3
		Social Studies	2
as Form 4	as Form 4	Woodwork	4
		Metalwork	4
		Science	3
		PE	3
		Music	1
		Newsom and Project Work	5
			40
N.B. The options allow, with a little timetable manoeuvring, for pupils to opt anywhere along the particular row.		Art+Design	3
		Needlework	4
		Dom. Sci.	4
		Project Work	2
			13

Basic Periods Required		*Extra Periods*
Year 1 : 3 × 40 =	120	21 (Remedials and Split classes)
Year 2 : 3 × 30 =	120	18 (» » » »)
Year 3 : 3 × 40 =	120	18 (» » » »)
	360	57 (» » » »)
Year 4 : 3 × 40 =	120	45 (Options)
Year 5 : 3 × 40 =	120	47 (»)
	240	92 (»)

Years 1–5 Total Periods 746
Total Periods Available 901
Number of Periods Available for Sixth Form 155

Programme for Sixth Form

Assume 155 periods available and 12 periods (7+7 with overlap between Upper and Lower Sixth) allotted to each subject.

English, French, History, Geography, Art *or* Music, Latin, Pure Mathematics, Applied Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology. Minority time 27 periods. No German.

Clearly this curriculum, though viable, does not allow for technical subjects in the sixth form nor does it allow for O-level and CSE repeats. These latter would have to be taken in the fifth form lessons, the former by travel to the nearest technical college. To this extent, the curriculum is defective, as it is in the range of A-level subjects, by comparison with the numbers of A-level subjects, available in the large schools. Yet it covers 80 per cent of the choices actually made by sixth form students, according to both an HMI investigation in the North of England and to an ILEA study. For ways of overcoming these deficiencies the reader is referred to articles by the present writer in *Comprehensive Education* and by Michael Armstrong in *Where?*

So much for the weaknesses of the small comprehensive school. What are its strengths? The strengths of the small school have been considerably under-rated, though there is much research on the strengths and weaknesses of small and large institutions generally, and some on those of schools in particular. They refer largely to the extent of participation and satisfaction.

Persons in smaller institutions are absent less often, are more punctual, more productive and more interested in the affairs of the organisation, find their work more meaningful, participate more often and function in positions of responsibility more frequently and in a wider range of activities. Studies of school size, mainly in the USA, support these general findings. In 1949 Larson found that higher percentages of students in small schools reported that it was easy to make friends and that they liked all their acquaintances. Higher percentages of students in large schools reported that they engaged in no extra activities or in only one. Anderson, Ladd and Smith found in 1954 that satisfaction with school was negatively correlated with school size, and a year earlier Isaacs reported that the staying-on rate was negatively related to size of school.

There is a hint in the NFER study that would support this last conclusion. Obviously small schools will have smaller sixth forms. They

do not necessarily have smaller staying-on rates into the sixth form. Rough estimates taken from data abstracted from the NFER survey *Comprehensive Education in England and Wales* (Research Reform No. 6, second series) would seem to suggest that they do not at least disfavour the small school.

Appendix I *Table* 10B (NFER report)

Relationship between Size of School, how long Established and Size of Sixth Form

Size of School	*Number of Schools*	*Number of Pupils*	*Mean*
less than 600	39	1,554	39·8
601–1,000	67	3,741	55·8
1,000 and over	75	7,095	94·6
	181	12,390	68·5

It can be roughly estimated from Table 4 of Appendix I of the report that the average number of pupils in each of the three sizes of schools is 500, 850 and 1,350. The average staying-on rate in the sixth form in each group of schools is therefore 7.9 per cent, 6.6 per cent and 7.0 per cent, that is a figure apparently not to the disadvantage of the small school, perhaps even to its advantage.

The largest study on size of school yet undertaken is that by Barker and Gump at the University of Kansas in the early 1960s. (See *Big School, Small School*). Barker had already done work on the effects of size in other types of institutions and used this experience to set up a complex and sophisticated series of investigations on its effects in education, involving a preliminary survey of 218 high schools, which varied in size up to over 2,000. Thirteen of these schools were then studied intensively and 39 more were used for special limited investigations.

As the intention was to investigate the total effects of schools on children, whether they were in class or not, the schools were analysed in terms of the number of behaviour settings* they provided for pupils.

At one end of the scale, a school with 2,287 pupils had 499 distinct settings, whilst at the other a school of 35 pupils had only 60. The large school therefore was able to provide a much greater number of activities. If one divides the number of pupils by the number of settings to obtain the 'setting density' the large school is seen to have 4·58 pupils on average per setting and the small school ·58 pupils. The probability of pupil participation in behaviour settings is therefore much greater in the small school than the large, since most settings cannot survive if no-one opts for them. The figures also show that school settings do not increase at the same rate as pupils. More pertinently perhaps, the *varieties* of settings increase relatively little. In the example given, the large school had 65 times as many pupils as the small school, 8 times as many settings, but only 1·5 times as many varieties of settings. The small school pupil is therefore much less penalised in the *range* of his activities than might appear at first sight,

* For example, mathematics classes taken by Mr X constitute a behaviour setting, as does also the Art Club, or the headmaster's office. No distinction as to relative importance of these behaviour settings was made, though they were separated into categories.

44 per cent of all varieties were common to all schools and 47 per cent or more of the behaviour settings of every school were in common varieties and the percentages were even greater when individual large and small schools were compared, the largest and one of the smallest schools sharing 77 per cent of the varieties.

A comparison of the number and variety of settings found in sizes of school relevant to the British situation reveals the following.

School	*Number of Pupils*	*Number of Settings*	*Number of varieties of setting*	*Setting Densities*
„ A	151	98	29	1·54
„ B	221	154	36	1·44
„ C	339	139	34	2·44
„ D	438	218	39	2·01
„ E	945	312	36	3·03
„ F	2,287	499	43	4·58

When the settings were divided up into four variety groupings the following picture was revealed:

Variety Grouping

	Educational		*Athletic*		*Operational*		*Extracurricular*		*Total*
School	*Number*	%	*Number*	%	*Number*	%	*Number*	%	
„ A	18	(18)	17	(17)	8	(8)	55	(56)	98
„ B	27	(18)	20	(13)	4	(9)	93	(60)	154
„ C	40	(29)	18	(13)	14	(10)	67	(48)	139
„ D	39	(18)	22	(10)	32	(15)	125	(57)	218
„ E	56	(18)	53	(17)	57	(18)	146	(47)	312
„ F	108	(22)	50	(10)	114	(23)	227	(46)	499

This second table reveals one fact in favour of the smallest school in the table very clearly. The percentage of its 'operational behaviour settings', i.e. the proportion devoted to organisation and administration, is less than half that of the largest school. The evidence, in line with the findings of research in other types of institutions, shows that, as schools increase in size, higher proportions of energy and facilities are—and have to be—devoted to the maintenance of the institutions and a lesser proportion to its goals and objectives.

The relevance of this study to the English situation cannot really be doubted, even though the proportion of extra-curricular activities in American schools is greater than that in English schools.

Other results from the study showed that the small school pupils were individually taking more subjects, though no data was gathered on the quality of the classes or the depth of participation. Individually, small school pupils participated more in both inter-school and community activities, and they were more versatile and less specialised. They also participated in more extra-curricular activities inside school. Yet in both cases the large schools put on more activities than the small school. Judging from the evidence about music, such activities tended to be dominated by the specialists in large schools. Small school pupils reported more satisfaction with school, and more frequently in terms of activity and capacity rather than passive participation, than did large school pupils. They felt a greater desire to participate and more awareness of what was expected of them in terms of responsibilities. There were clearly greater incentives from within themselves and greater pressures from outside themselves than was true for large

school pupils, even in the case of a large school decentralised on the model of the large English comprehensive school.* The assumption that a rich curriculum or an extensive programme of extra-curricula activities means rich experiences for students is the same assumption as that which takes it for granted that teaching necessarily involves learning.

It is clear from the above data that small schools provide a crucially different environment from large schools and that in respect of personal development it is a more favourable one. Research on child development shows that active participation is more stimulating than passive participation. It is not surprising then that small school students experience greater satisfaction with school and that they tend to relate it to various aspects of personal development. The pressures which small schools are shown to exert more successfully than large ones help to contribute to a sense of competence, since whether weak, strong, inept, skilful, young or experienced, each pupil really is important. Many activities cannot continue without his participation and the increased sense of responsibility which this situation generates is likely to produce greater and earlier maturity.

How large should a school be? Barker and Gump's study mentioned earlier cannot really answer this question on its own, since some important issues, such as depth of academic learning, were not investigated. Moreover since, for example, the small school seems to some extent to favour versatility at the expense of specialisation a value judgement as to the relative worth of the two in modern society would also be involved. It would seem that the small school provides the best opportunities for personal development and the large school the widest range of opportunities—accepted or not—for academic learning. Yet at the same time the small school of 400 or so provides more academic opportunities than might appear at first sight. Perhaps we may leave the last word to Barker and Gump.

> A basic problem for the immediate future is to investigate the degree to which the relations we have discovered between school size, school settings and student participation are inevitable. Not only the present research, but all other research known to us, indicates that the negative relationship between institutional size and individual participation is deeply based and difficult, if not impossible, to avoid. It may be easier to bring specialized and varied behaviour settings to small schools than to raise the level of individual participation in large schools. Furthermore, the current method of broadening educational offerings by moving hundreds of bodies to a central spot may be both unnecessary and old-fashioned. Already a technical revolution with respect to teaching devices and educational facilities is upon us. Self-teaching machines, taped school courses, T.V. classes, wired T.V. linking separate schools, new ideas about teaching personnel (e.g. school aides), new conceptions of inter-school cooperation (e.g. transporting teachers and equipment rather than students), new conceptions of the contributions of the community to educational objectives, and new materials and standards for school construction are freeing schools from past moulds.

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* Campbell, W. J. Review of Karl R. Platt's 'Schools within Schools: A Study of High School Organisation', in the *Journal of Educational Administration*, Volume III, Number 1, May 1966.

Trends No. 20 *contained an article on religious education. An alternative approach to the teaching of morality is described below.*

The Road to Social Maturity

JAMES HEMMING

James Hemming is a writer, author and broadcaster with wide experience of education, youth work and counselling. He has served on several working parties dealing with problems of young people and written books on moral problems, among them *Teach Them To Live, Problems of Adolescent Girls* and *Individual Morality*.

There are two main kinds of morality: the morality of authority (conformity) and the morality of involvement (the acceptance of personal responsibility). Until very recently the morality of authority was dominant everywhere. Beliefs and rules were laid down, and those subject to them were supposed to accept, and obey, without question. To believe and obey was held to be the height of virtue; to disbelieve, or disobey, was henious wickedness. This sort of morality—the morality of conforming to imposed beliefs and edicts—is today in decline, in favour of the morality of responsibility and involvement.

The morality of involvement is a better fit to our age than the morality of authority because we are now living in a perpetually changing, pluralist, interdependent and inter-communicating world. The morality of authority is appropriate to a self-perpetuating, static society, in which all those in authority speak with one voice in support of a single set of beliefs and ideas; it breaks down in a rapidly-evolving, open, pluralist society when every individual is subject to a deluge of ideas from which he has somehow to make a selection to structure and steer his personal life.

Let us, for example, consider the position of a young man in his later teens today, faced with the, for him, urgent problem of what to do with his sexuality. One voice of authority demands chastity; another tells him that physical love before marriage is right and wholesome, so long as it is a manifestation of love and integrity; another advises him to think in terms of an outlet for a need, to be met in any way that is not injurious to others. One voice of authority tells him that his primary duty is to avoid unwanted pregnancies by the careful use of contraceptives; another voice tells him that to use contraceptive devices is sinful. Two things emerge quite clearly to this young man. One is that 'they' cannot all be right, and the other is that he will have to make up his own mind about how to behave. And this is only one example of the moral spectrum from which young people have to sort out, by personal thought and struggle, the components and structure of a way of life that seems right to them.

Moral Insight

There are, of course, broader reasons why we have to move on from the morality of authority to the morality of responsibility. All kinds of new problems are facing us for which there are no answers in the rule books. The Ten Commandments are inevitably silent on such contemporary moral issues as population control, planetary conservation, organ transplants, the proper distribution of the world's wealth, automation, the use of violence to maintain, or change, a social order, not to mention genetical engineering and other searching issues which

are a prospect of the not-so-distant future. Even the Golden Rule—do unto others as you would they should do unto you—gives us no more than the starting point for careful thought in which such ideas as the value of personal fulfilment, the improvement of societies in terms of promoting individual and group creativity, and the importance of protecting and enhancing the quality of life on this planet, both now and for the future, become guiding principles.

For these and other reasons the modern world needs more than moral conformists—although appropriate conformity is a part of all social living. It needs people educated in moral insight and understanding—morally mature people that is, people capable of dealing responsibly with the range and variety of decisions that will come their way. It follows that the aim of moral education today should be to help children to attain to the highest level of moral maturity of which they are capable.

Moral maturity comes, if it comes at all, as the outcome of a series of developmental phases which gradually transform the egocentricity of the baby into the social concern and personal responsibility of the mature adult. Each phase has to be properly nurtured if moral growth is to continue to full fruition. Denied this, a child may become fixated at a premature stage and never fulfil his moral potentialities.

Stages of Development

This developmental approach to moral education contrasts sharply with the earlier approach, which treated morality as a package of knowledge and belief which we had to prevail upon children to accept holus-bolus. We now realise that moral capacity gradually emerges in the right formative milieu. It is basically no different educationally from any other capacity; it is the result of experience, learning and maturation. Piaget talked of two main stages of moral growth covering the pre-adolescent years. Recently, in *Moral Judgement From Childhood to Adolescence*, Dr Norman Bull has broadened Piaget's system to four stages, including adolescent development. These stages he calls anomy (the egocentric pre-moral stage); heteronomy (the stage of conceiving 'right' as like acceptance of external rules); socionomy (the stage of awakening to the needs of others as a moral principle); and autonomy (the stage of developing a mature, internalised value system). Dr Bull has illustrated through his research the tendency of children to advance from anomy towards autonomy as they grow older.

Professor Lawrence Kohlberg, of Harvard University, after exploring moral development psychologically and anthropologically, has divided the same range into six stages. He reports that not only individuals, but whole societies, may become fixated at an immature stage of moral development. Such work makes it abundantly clear not only that moral powers are educable but that, when the right kind of education is lacking, they may be seriously stunted.

Hence, we today find ourselves in a quite different climate of moral education from that which prevailed even twenty years ago. The job of moral education in the modern world is not to condition the child in terms of a set pattern of beliefs but to foster his personal and moral growth so that he may attain adulthood equipped to play a responsible part in a changing, challenging, open, plural society.

Religious Faith and Moral Strength

Where does religion come into this? From earliest times to about fifty years ago religion was presented for the most part as a source of authoritarian precepts. Free will was accorded to the individual; but critical thought in religious affairs was regarded as unholy. Personal choice was limited, by those of a religious turn of mind, to choosing to obey or not to obey the rules of belief and conduct laid down from above. The faithful were those who conformed; those who did not were regarded as dangerously deviant.

During the past fifty years, this authoritarian position has become less and less credible. Today we find all religious organisations divided into their authoritarian and democratic wings. The authoritarians wish to preserve, or restore, the *status quo ante*; the democrats are opening more and more of the formerly closed areas to personal thought and choice. Absolutism is everywhere in decline in its grip on the human intellect, even though still in power in many places.

But this is not an irreligious age. On the contrary, people, particularly the young, are turning to the eternal search to find answers to the fundamental questions of human existence: the nature of consciousness, the relationship between the human and the eternal, the origin and 'purpose' of the creative process, the nature of the mystery that surrounds us and interpenetrates our being, the fact of death. But the various attempts to limit and circumscribe this area of experience, in terms of authoritarian formulae, crystallised into institutions, no onger carry the conviction they once did.

Thus, although people with intact religious faith may feel that their moral strength derives from it—a personal but not a universal truth—it is educationally unwise, to say the least, to regard Christian belief and worship as the foundation of moral education today. A notable point here is that, whereas moral growth is sustained by the gradual acquisition of dependable moral concepts, the concept structure of orthodox Christianity is not holding up very well. Former certainty has become present controversy. Such concepts as a personal God, Satan, Heaven, Hell, the Divinity of Jesus, the Virgin Birth, the Ascension into Heaven, the Bethlehem Story, and Eternal Life have been in question for some time even among theologians themselves. At best what was regarded as fact has become symbolic—one presentation of the human search to explain man's nature and situation. But, if symbolic, what exactly does 'Our Father which art in Heaven' mean to a child of nine in the space age? And are we not sending him off on a false cognitive track if we use such language to him?

To attempt to force concepts that are in conflict with modern knowledge upon young minds is not the way to lay the foundation for moral and spiritual maturity; it is, rather, a first step on the road to moral and spiritual confusion and so, in due course, to moral and spiritual apathy. To satisfy interest in man's religious yearnings and strivings is another thing. To deal with this is to introduce children to an important element in human evolution, and to a better understanding of themselves and others. It is the attempt to 'sell' uncertain concepts as certainties that defeats its own ends.

Self-value and Community Life

Let us return, then, to the firmer ground of developmental morality. What have we to try to do educationally in order to promote and

nourish the moral maturation of every child through the various stages of moral growth? At the core of the developmental process is a well-founded sense of self-value with its concomitant self-confidence. This is the *sine qua non* of moral development as, indeed, of personal development as a whole. Without an adequate sense of self-value there can be no adequate sense of responsibility. We cannot feel responsible in situations where we feel we have nothing to offer. If people are dogged by an excessive sense of inadequacy, they will write themselves off as incapable of making a significant contribution to affairs. Skinheads, for example, have written themselves off in terms of society and create their own sub-culture where they may salvage a little self-respect by destructive exhibitionism of one kind or another. Psychopaths are, typically, self-hating individuals.

The relationship between self-value, self-confidence and moral development has received nothing like sufficient attention educationally. The competitive structure of traditional education was of a kind to break rather than to build self-confidence: success was a minority prize; the majority often experienced an excess of belittling failure. Modern methodology is slowly correcting this trend but, even now, the aim of building confidence in every child—by releasing his potentialities, however frail, in ways that are satisfying to him, and socially acceptable—is not sufficiently to the fore. Of how many school days, in how many schools, can we say with assurance: 'This day has built up the confidence of every child present.'

The experience of warm, purposeful community life, which offers every participant an opportunity to contribute as himself, is also of profound importance in moral development. Community life, with which the individual can identify, is a major source of value transmission and should be present for all children at all ages. It is the ground for moral growth because young people pick up their values from those relationships and groups with which they feel identification. This is true whether the relationship or group is social or anti-social in character.

The potential power of the school in this regard is obvious, and also the nature of its aims as a socialising institution. It has to manifest constantly, in the way of life it offers, those values upon which the culture depends. For our society these include such values as respect and concern for the individual, compassion, co-operation, involvement in decisions, the encouragement of honest thought, responsibility for one's own actions, and for the well-being of others, social responsibility, and concern for the future of the world. Furthermore, if the values it represents are to be accepted by the pupils, the school must offer a pattern of life and learning that has positive appeal and meaning for the young people themselves; otherwise the pupils will not identify with the school but will draw their values from some other grouping with which they do identify.

There are four principal community sources for the child's acquisition of values: the family and associated groups, the school, friendship groups and society as experienced by the child, which includes, of course, the mass media. The various groupings operate with different force at different ages but all are an influence throughout the school years. For some children, unfortunately, home values are inconsistent, peer values at least marginally anti-social, and social values confused. For such children a warm, civilised, congenial school community is

their best, if not their only, hope of attaining moral maturity. For the more fortunate, the school has still a central role in moral development. Almost all children go to school. By assuring for all children an experience of moral quality at school—which is something quite different from a moralising tone—we can greatly increase the prospects for all children to attain moral maturity.

Moral Education

By building personal self-confidence at school, and by providing a milieu of high quality community life around the child, we can lay the essential educational foundations for moral growth. But much more is involved. Moral growth, like any other form of growth, requires close attention to the continuous development of component skills. Wilson, Williams and Sugarman, at the Farmington Trust, are studying what these skills are. They include the ability to identify with others, awareness of oneself and other people, appropriate knowledge, and the capacity to formulate and abide by rules of conduct. (See *Introduction to Moral Education*, Pelican, 1967.) McPhail and his colleagues in the Schools Council's Moral Education Curriculum Project are investigating how to train such essential moral attributes as sensitivity to the needs of others. Under such headings as 'humanities' or 'orientation studies', education directed to similar ends is appearing in an increasing number of curricula.

All such initiatives operate on the assumption that there are certain principles upon which personal and social life depend and that such principles should be encountered and studied during the process of education. Sociology and anthropology lend support to this point of view. We might say that there is a deep structure of moral necessity underlying all human societies—honesty, the acceptance of obligations, concern for one another, courage in the face of difficulties, and so forth. On top of this foundation there is, in every society, a superstructure of convention, law, and principle which may be progressive or retrogressive in terms of social evolution. A democratic society has to secure, in addition to the universals, those principles essential to the democratic way of life: belief in people, the maximisation of individual freedom, the minimum use of force in the maintenance of order, care for the weak, the encouragement of critical thought, the extension of individual responsibility in the conduct of affairs, to name but a few.

The realities of our moral situation—skills, knowledge, relationships, responsibilities—have gradually to be brought home to children as they grow and develop, not by techniques of imposing conformity (the authoritarian solution) but by the awakening of understanding (the democratic solution). In this, all the traditional subject areas have a role if taught with this aim in mind. English literature is about people and character and situations and human feeling—the very stuff of moral awareness. Mathematics and science are about the exploration of their particular kind of truth. Art and music deepen and expand self-awareness, and sensitivity to the human situation. History and geography are about the struggles of people to master problems of survival and progress. All areas provide examples of great lives to serve as models for aspiration and emulation.

Thus, the whole curriculum can be imbued with moral impact if we take the subjects out of their pigeon-holes, and enrich and integrate

them by adding their human relevance. Professor Bruner has said, in *The Process of Education*, 'A curriculum ought to be built around the great issues, principles and values that a society deems worthy of the continual concern of its members.' The evidence from the whole range of social sciences is that, if we fail to act along such lines, we run a heavy risk of losing the kind of society we want. A culture survives and advances in terms of the knowledge and values that are transmitted from one generation to the next. Should we fail to educate for the kind of civilised culture we value, chaos, or collapse into autocracy, or one leading to the other, become imminent threats. We are today faced with the need for comprehensive renovation of what our schools offer —for personal development, as communities, in curricula—with personal and moral maturity as major aims, if we are to achieve and sustain the creative humane society which is, presumably, what we are seeking.

At this point it is perhaps necessary to show that to harness the whole school experience, including the curriculum, to the purpose of clarifying and handing on the civilised and civilising values which our society seeks to represent is not in any way to threaten standards of scholarship; rather the reverse. What in effect needs to happen is that every discipline should be personalised, and taught in its social setting, so that each reinforces the other in terms of its concept development and humanising influence. There is no educational problem whatever, for instance, in giving mathematics a realistic personal/social content. Modern approaches do just this. Infants learn about histograms by recording their heights on a wall-chart; middle school children may operate a random sample to estimate how many families in the neighbourhood have baths or coloured television sets; seniors can work out projections on pollution, population, traffic congestion or suchlike. All such exercises promote interest in people, and social concern generally—nuclear concepts in attaining moral maturity. And so for the whole curriculum.

To make the whole purpose convincing and workable those dominators of secondary curricula, the examiners, would have to modify their habits a little, but *not* in the direction of impairing standards of scholarship. A question in any advanced Physics examination paper might well be: 'Explain the difficulties entailed in controlling the energy available from nuclear fusion.' This is an interesting and searching question for a young physicist but it is socially and morally neutral. It could be put in another form: 'Outline the difficulties that have to be overcome in order to make the energy of nuclear fusion available for peaceful purposes and estimate some of the social consequences likely to follow successful control.' Such a question calls for a *higher* standard of scholarship than that required to answer the socially inert question. If a proportion of science questions were given a social content, teachers would be encouraged to broaden and socialise their science teaching. A secondary effect might well be that the kind of able young people who now reject university science would return to it. And so for all specialisms.

The organisation of pastoral care within the school is yet another important aspect of moral education. It is the cared-for who learn to care, so that a caring community at school paves the way for a caring community in society. Pressures on children—particularly the adolescent—are increasing, as also are the incidence of divided, broken, and

neurotic homes. Research makes it plain that on any day, in any secondary school, there are likely to be many children in need of special support, because of acute stress of one kind or another. Busy teachers cannot, by themselves, meet the need, although all can help. Head teachers, house teachers and tutors have too much work on hand to be available for more than the most blatant problems, whereas some of the most serious, and socially disruptive, stress may be out of sight, unless special efforts are made to offer help. This makes the appointment of teacher counsellors to all large schools educationally logical today, to supplement the pastoral care of staff and school psychologists, and to serve as a link between them. Caring persons are not in themselves enough; what is needed is a network of care that is constantly improving its humanity and efficiency by maintaining open lines of communication between all participants.

Religious Education

The role of religious education *per se* in moral education is to provide additional insight and understanding to children who are experiencing the whole of their education as morally formative. What adolescents are interested in is the human religious impulse and its manifestations. They are bored by any attempt to impose on them a particular set of beliefs. Religious education, therefore, should offer an interesting study of human religions, and the great moral initiators, not as the clash of ideologies incorporated as 'comparative religion', but as an holistic interpretation of human religious striving.

The schools' task, as is now widely appreciated, is to inform, and promote discussion, not to convert. This automatically excludes worship from school activities. Worship always implies the uncritical acceptance of certain concepts; it cannot, therefore, be free from indoctrination. This is because worship provides a combination of emotional experience and cognitive reinforcement. This is the strength of worship for believers, and its weakness for unbelievers. In a mixed community, the existence of religious worship is, therefore, unavoidably and regrettably divisive. The quality of community life is threatened, not helped, by worship. This does not mean that a school cannot celebrate the great human values which the school represents—love, courage, pertinacity, integrity, concern, imagination, responsibility, co-operation, creative achievement and many others. With such celebrations all children can identify because such values are of the stuff of life itself and call forth an echo from within the children's own natures.

Man's spiritual qualities—the highest manifestation of his powers of mind and heart—are, let it be noted, a part of his humanity. Some world religions have set great store by them but so also, did paganism at its best, and the atheist poets, such as Shelley. To regard such qualities as, somehow, a monopoly of Christianity is, of course, a grave error which should not be perpetuated in the education of our children. The study of Christianity plainly has a part in any education; to treat Christianity as the sole source of man's spiritual awareness and capacity is quite another thing. Spiritual awareness is a mode of sensitivity that can have a host of origins. It is the outcome of a good total education.

It would be unrealistic to conclude an article of this kind without some reference to three potential moral stumbling blocks for the modern

young: sex, drugs and materialism. These are in no way exceptions to the general principles of moral education outlined above. The value set on the quality of personal life is fundamental to all three. It is no longer possible to maintain that pre-marital sexual experience is, in all cases, wrong; it is possible to say that right sexual behaviour arises from self-respect and concern and compassion for others. To such an approach most young people will immediately respond. Again, we are on weak moral ground if we suggest that occasionally smoking marihuana is more harmful than heavy cigarette smoking, or drinking. If we try that, young people will dismiss it scornfully as a 'con'. But they will listen if we point out that induced emotional states are not truly personal, and that they ultimately, to quote Richard Holmes, 'expand, distort and dissipate the senses into passivity of outlook.' Drugs such as LSD are an outrage on a magnificent instrument of personality—the brain. The young will respond to that idea too. As for materialism, the young are ahead of the adults in their criticism of the money-motivated society. But perhaps we should do more in school to explain the dubitable morality of 'the system' to them. They would then leave school better equipped to play their part in transforming society to something richer in the quality of life than it now is. An informed, constructive criticism of society is obviously a proper outcome of a comprehensive moral education. It is evidence of social responsibility in a morally mature individual. That some social protest among young adults is socially irresponsible may well be the result of inadequate social and moral education during the school years.

Children know all about the tadpole, but what about the life cycle of homo sapiens?

Human Biology

MARY HOLMES

Mary Holmes was formerly senior lecturer in health education at the Institute of Education, London University. She joined HM Inspectorate at the beginning of 1970.

During the last 100 years the teaching of science has of course gathered momentum in all English schools. There has been an immense expansion in studies of the physical world but there still seem to be inhibitions about the study of man himself; books on 'how the body works' are relatively rare in primary schools. Although the curriculum may include a study of human society, of man's social relationships and of his effect on his environment, the effect of social and environmental change on man's physical self is seldom introduced. Perhaps Huxley and Wells were right when in *The Science of Life* (1934) they wrote, 'There is a real natural and instinctive resistance to biological knowledge in the mass of mankind and the nearer that knowledge approaches to our own minds and bodies the intenser the resistance becomes.' They based this view on their belief that most people in the world wore clothes of some kind. A more likely explanation was, perhaps, the still prevailing influence of late Victorian prudery. Yet early in that era T. H. Huxley in a lecture delivered in 1854 said, 'The common facts of biology, the uses of parts of the body, the names and habits of living creatures which surround us may be taught with advantage to the youngest child. . . . Biology needs no apology when she demands a place and a prominent place in any scheme of education worthy of the name.' In spite of this many of the young men who enter colleges of education today claim they have learned nothing of their own bodies either in health or disease.

It is not easy to estimate how many children do learn human biology at school. Most girls at some stage study general biology, but in 1967 only about a quarter of the boys taking GCE offered biology at O-level and this was a threefold increase on 1957. About one-third of the CSE candidates in that year offered biology or general science. Only a handful of boys or girls take human biology as such. Even in new up-to-date syllabuses like Nuffield O-level biology, man is only studied incidentally though the Nuffield Secondary Science syllabus promises to be much more specific. Many of the existing biology and general science courses in schools hardly mention man at all, preference is given to the rabbit as the example of a mammal. Few children leave our schools without an intimate knowledge of the tadpole. One may wonder why the development and growth of *Rana temporaria* takes precedence over the life cycle of *Homo Sapiens*.

In the Primary School

The BBC suggests that its primary school sex education programmes should not be given in isolation or as special features of the curriculum but should relate to work already going on in the schools. But what if there is no such work to which it could be suitably related? The working of the human body seems rarely to be discussed in primary

schools. There are no books on the subject in the Tann Collection* which is widely used as a guide to teachers in their choice of books. Is it in some way thought dangerous to study the human body or merely regarded as immodest in spite of the fact that we do not live in a very modest age?

We would have our children learn about space and space machines but not about the marvellously intricate human mechanism upon the limits of whose ability to adapt, survival ultimately depends.

The Dainton report, seeking to explain the drift from science says, 'Man lives in a physical world which from curiosity as much as necessity he seeks to understand and control.' Does this physical world include his physical self? Or again, 'Scientific interests in young children are a natural expression of their curiosity about the world and they have a right to the opportunity to nurture such interests.' What about their interest in themselves?

One difficulty perhaps at the primary school level is that such interest cannot be satisfied entirely by first hand observation. Second hand information and diagrammatic presentation become to some extent necessary. Such teaching cannot be put off too long since girls at least need to understand their own anatomy before the onset of puberty, and this occurs very often these days before they leave the primary school. It would be somewhat ironic if we found ourselves reversing the situation of the 19th century and instead of studying the structure and function of all the systems of the body except the reproductive system, we taught our primary school children about only the latter. For even if we ignore their curiosity, which is considerable, they must of necessity experience a functional change in themselves and should be helped to understand it. But what about their other bodily functions? Have they not the right to understand these? Many of the great educators of the past believed that children did have this right and that it was the concern of the school and not just of the home. John Milton in his *Tractate on Education* suggested that children in school should be read to from 'some not tedious writer in the Institution of Physick that they may know the tempers, the humours, the seasons and how to manage a crudity.' He goes on to explain that a simple understanding of nutrition and digestion might well, and cheaply, help an army commander keep his soldiers fit and he thought this early example of preventive medicine should be part of the school curriculum. Robert Boyle thought it 'highly dishonourable for a Reasonable Soul to live in so Divinely built Mansion as the Body she resides in altogether unacquainted with the exquisite structure of it.'

In the latter part of the 19th century human physiology did indeed become a grant earning, though optional, subject in the elementary schools. Such a development was partly due to writers like Herbert Spencer who set himself the task in his book on education, published in 1861, of considering 'what knowledge is of most worth', and who concluded that 'knowledge which subserves direct self-preservation by preventing this loss of health is of primary importance . . . and therefore we assert that such a course of physiology as is needful for the comprehension of its general truths and their bearings on daily

* A collection of children's books formed by HM Inspectorate in 1949 and named after Miss F. M. Tann who was Chief Inspector of Primary Schools at the time.

conduct is an all essential part of rational education.' His long chapter on Physical Education suggested that there is a need to teach about the care of the body as well as the need to encourage actual physical activity.

A study of 19th century text books suggests that what had been a dynamic and lively study in the early years of the century gradually became stereo-typed and exam-ridden. Blackie's *Animal Physiology, a Specific Subject of Instruction in Public Elementary Schools* (1880) begins with the sentence 'This little work is not designed as a textbook for a student (sic) it is simply and purely a school book intended for the use of children preparing to satisfy the requirements of Her Majesty's Inspectors in the Specific subject 'Animal Physiology'. In it there were no experiments as there had been in earlier books and few pictures. There are not even many of those moralising 'observations' that were such a standby of the Victorian educator, although it contains one in relation to the epiglottis. 'It is very dangerous as well as vulgar to laugh and talk with the mouthful.' There was however a long list of questions for examination purposes. The rot had set in!

Decline of Human Physiology

T. H. Huxley, himself a magnificent populariser of human physiology concerned about the scientific training of future doctors and scientists, worked for the introduction into the schools of physics, chemistry and biology, including genuine observation, dissection and experiment. These largely replaced the once popular human physiology, a subject which by this time had ceased to be a genuinely scientific study and had become largely didactic, conveyed by chalk and talk. Some of its content became incorporated into hygiene offered more often to girls than to boys and into domestic science not offered to boys at all. The study of man had gradually disappeared from the school curriculum but there were still some exceptional teachers. In 1906 a book was published in New York *Systematic Science Teaching* by E. G. Howe which described itself as a 'graded spiral of science lessons attempting to give a broadly balanced view of science' which included in the list of topics 'The Boy'—'a common well known animal the most familiar of any and hence well suited to introduce the study of animals'. It contained a chapter headed 'The Boy—use and care of parts'—but as was the case with all 19th century text books, the existence of his reproductive parts was ignored. The curious thing about our position today is that even though we may study the reproductive system of the body in the primary school, we tend to ignore 'the whole boy—use and care of parts' throughout all stages of education.

It is interesting to consider the various factors which may have contributed to this state of affairs. Undoubtedly one of these is the need to provide professional scientists, and doctors in particular, with the scientific tools they need. T. H. Huxley pointed out that 'systematic teaching in biology cannot be attempted with success until the student has attained a certain knowledge of physics and chemistry.' We might now add mathematics, but why should the everyday needs of the ordinary citizen be sacrificed to the academic requirements of the potential scientists? Our concern should surely be with a proper education in science for the majority and not merely for a chosen few.

The second factor may ironically have been the development of good

modern science teaching with its increased emphasis on direct observation and experiment. It would be unrealistic to suggest that exactly the same methods of observation can be used on man as have been developed in field studies or with animals kept in the school laboratory. The teaching of human biology seems to have continued longer in those countries where teaching methods are still largely descriptive, but many more simple experiments than are usually attempted are possible at both primary and secondary level. Scientific methods could well include the appraisal of statistical evidence from human populations (see Nuffield *O-level Biology—Book III—The Maintenance of Life*, Chapter on how breathing takes place).

The third factor might be the separation at university level in this country of pre-medical studies from other biological studies. This means that in the sixth form a choice has usually to be made by the student. Those interested in human biology go on to medical and para-medical studies preliminary to careers as doctors or nurses, while those who take courses on botany and zoology at University go on into teaching.

New Developments

Of course this is over-stating the case. There are signs that not only in the new Nuffield science syllabuses and CSE, but at university and college level there is an increased awareness of the need for human studies and a start has been made to introduce them, for instance in the new social biology courses in a number of colleges of education, the human biology degree at the University of Surrey and by the introduction of a human science faculty at Oxford University. It is by means of courses of this kind in colleges and universities that the present vicious circle may eventually be broken. Teachers, particularly at the primary level, tend to present those subjects which really interest them personally. Certainly they tend to encourage questions from children largely on those subjects on which they themselves are well informed though they may not be conscious of it. If so it follows that if we wish to include a study of man in the broadly ranging studies of the primary school, teachers should not be sent out from colleges feeling inadequate in the field of human biology.

Quite apart from children's natural interest in themselves and their rights to satisfy this curiosity there are certain things that as adults they will need to know. In addition to knowing how to feed and clothe their children they will now be expected to understand the dangers and consequences of pollution, make decisions about the use of contraceptives, understand the need for 'screening techniques' like cervical cytology and to be at home with the terminology involved in these. More important perhaps they should develop attitudes which minimise embarrassment and make rational discussion of themselves possible, at least with their doctors. Such attitudes develop in early years when the child's questions are either taken seriously or brushed aside.

A Core Subject

Our knowledge of man has increased so much since the 19th century as indeed have the scientific tools by which we can study him. His behaviour and his social relationships are just as important as his physiology but human biology could be a recognisable starting point

for the teacher and could incorporate carefully selected aspects of psychology, sociology and indeed ethology. It has been suggested that a human biology syllabus might include the following topics—

Man and his origins
Man as a self-maintained machine
Co-ordination and communication within the body
Man as a social and reflective animal
Man and applied biology
Man as an evolving biotic factor in the environment

This last aspect is perhaps particularly important and one that in conservation year we would do well to stress.

However much we develop machines and technology, the human body alters little; its limitations and scale remain the same however large our buildings and our communities become, however fast and far we travel. Surely it would help to learn to assess what we can reasonably expect of it. Hans Seyle dedicates his book *The Stress of Life* to those:

'Who are not afraid to enjoy the stress of a full life,
Nor too naive to think they can do so without intellectual effort.'

There is surely a case for human biology, or a study of 'Man', with some of its social and psychological implications, as a core subject in the curriculum, introduced first at the top of the primary school, then for all leavers below the 6th form and finally in the 6th form itself where it does now sometimes appear in general studies courses.

In the teaching of science we place an emphasis on observation but seem to have forgotten the observer: in our interest in integration we seem to have forgotten the integrator to whom all knowledge relates.

By various means new life has been brought to the teaching of poetry in schools.

Poetry on Its Own Feet

LEONARD CLARK

Leonard Clark has always been interested in poetry for and by children, and is the author of a number of books of poetry and anthologies and autobiography. He retired from HM Inspectorate in 1970.

Poetry, alas, has not always been very well taught in schools in the past. There are many reasons for this. Perhaps the most important is that poetry cannot be taught. Poems can be taught, though it does not always follow that poetry will emerge on every occasion when they are. Poetry is caught, as if it were some kind of epidemic resulting in fever. Other reasons for its ineffectiveness have been that poems have been dissected at too early an age, examined in public examinations, children have been compelled to learn poems by heart (though actually by rote), there has been too great an emphasis on the history of poetry, often to the exclusion of poetry itself, small doses of poetry have been administered at fixed and regular times in timetables. Too often have poems been regarded as insignificant counters in a whole battery of literary criticism, a great deal of which is entirely subjective and often entirely arbitrary.

In the past, too, there have been well-intentioned 'appreciation of poetry' lessons, as there have been 'appreciation' of music and art lessons, and often at periods in children's lives when they have neither the equipment nor the experience to put a price upon, to give a value to the poems they read, or are read to them. Whoever heard of lessons which were called 'appreciation of mathematics', or of science, or of physical education?

A combination of all these reasons has tended to place poetry in the wrong context and to regard it as a sub-branch of a subject called English. Too often has it been forgotten that poetry can stand on its own feet. Matthew Arnold, a pioneer in the field of poetry teaching, must take some of the blame for all this. It was he who, in all sincerity, and with the highest motives, demanded of young late-nineteenth century pupil teachers, and the pupils themselves, that they should learn by heart a stated number of lines from the works of the great poets, so that they could be tested afterwards and thus prove what creatures of sweetness and light they were. Such compulsion must have closed the hearts of generations of teachers and pupils to the glories of many great poets.

Not that there is anything wrong, in principle, about any of these classroom techniques; each has its undoubted merits. But each is dangerous in the hands of those who do not really enjoy poetry themselves as informed adults. The result has been that a great deal of poetry has been taught ineptly and without inspiration. Teachers in the past, and many, indeed, today, tend to regard poetry as a frill, or not to be experienced very fully because human emotions would be deeply involved and revolutionary ideas about mankind widely propagated. Many teachers are still frightened of poetry. It certainly has little to do with keeping a stiff upper lip.

Yet, although there is still much poor teaching of poetry, with too

great an emphasis placed upon isolated poetry lessons, the position is considerably better than it once was. More and more teachers, and parents, have come to realise that poetry means more to children than was ever thought possible. The changed social climate has much to do with this. But, in an over-organised and confused age, children may well need poetry today more than ever before, both to read it and to write it for themselves. Our age has seen a spectacular growth in the amount of creative writing in and out of schools. Much of this consists of poetry. Such poetry by children, if it is not allowed to become too artificial, sophisticated, over-literary or gimmicky, is now regarded as being part of children's normal growing-up, an important facet of their development in language.

Publishers have not been slow to meet the demand. A great deal of poetry—much by new poets—has been published in book form, in little magazines and periodicals. More poetry for children has been published, in anthologies, in selections from past and present poets, or by poets who have written with children in mind. Not all of this latter work is of high quality; some of it, indeed, is little more than doggerel or, at its best, lacking in imagination, observation and vivid language, often pandering to the weakest elements, which have always regarded children either as lacking completely in experience, or feeble minded. Some of the anthologies of poetry, too, are not what they could be and many of the poems included in them are either inappropriate or not worth including at all.

In addition, there are more organisations which now deal with poetry and its promotion. There is a growing number of poetry societies, and poetry readings are held which range from those in the Festival Hall in London to more humble efforts in local parish halls, libraries, homes and pubs. All these signs are healthy, though there is some danger that a poetry industry has been created with the same poets and administrators controlling it. In this context the fine work done by the Arts Council and particularly its 'Writers in Schools' scheme, the National Association for the Teaching of English, the Poetry Society, the Greater London Arts Association, and the *Daily Mirror* and other similar poetry competitions, should not be forgotten. They have done a great deal to support poetry in education, and to bring it into the homes.

The Poetry courses organised by the Department of Education and Science since 1961 have played an important part in all this. Every year they have been attended by lecturers from colleges of education, local education authority's officers, and teachers from technical colleges, secondary and primary schools. The courses, directed by HMI with a staff which includes a resident poet, have, in general, kept the same pattern over the years, though there have been minor changes on each occasion. Edmund Blunden, Patricia Beer, Anthony Thwaite and Seamus Heaney have been among the resident poets.

Other poets, chosen upon a catholic basis and representing all shades of contemporary writing, have visited the courses to read their own work and comment upon it. These visiting poets included Ted Hughes, Kathleen Raine, Cecil Day Lewis, Laurie Lee and many others. Their presence has always created a great deal of discussion, argument, high feeling, humour, and admiration. Most of the poets invited have read their work very well, have given generously of their time and mixed freely with the members of the course.

What these courses have revealed over the years has been an implicit acknowledgment of the proof that poetry speaks to many people, old and young, and that it enriches their total experience of life. The courses have always offered many opportunities for deeper aesthetic imaginative and technical experiences, and the implications that these have on the work in the schools and colleges. But it must be admitted that only a very small fraction of the total teaching strength of the country has come to these courses and that those who have come have already been enthusiasts who wanted to add to their knowledge and enjoyment. But it is a hopeful sign that many other educational bodies, at all levels, including local education authorities, are now including poetry courses in their programmes of in-service training, and inviting poets to take part in some of the sessions. A great deal is, in fact, happening. More and more schools are giving children the opportunities to write poetry for themselves. What many teachers still find difficult is how to assess the value of much of this original work.

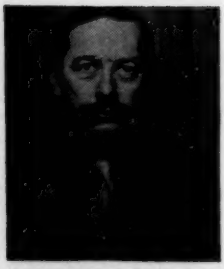
The interest in poetry in education today is no mere revival of interest. It is much more the result of greater knowledge about children and their needs and desires. And with this greater knowledge, the techniques employed for imparting poetry to children are more varied and forward looking. Poetry is no longer so isolated as it once was, no longer so much of a subject. It is seen to be about real things and real people. It does not only give a one-sided picture of how life is lived, or has been lived. It does not run away from presenting all aspects of the truth.

The questions to ask for the future are not about how many of the children will become poets, but how many of them will continue to read poetry, to get something from it, and to buy books of poetry for themselves. Will what is happening in so many schools today lead to greater sensitivity, deeper feeling for language and a recognition that poetry has much to offer of truth and beauty to all people? Or will it continue to be over-taught and under-read? We can only hope that all these things will come to pass and that poetry itself will gain because of them.

What should the aims and methods of English teaching in the colleges be? The author puts forward some possible answers.

English in Further Education

SYDNEY BOLT



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In further education, students of vocational subjects know what they are supposed to be learning, why they need to learn it, and even how the lesson is conducive to their so doing. Teachers of English in further education may well envy their colleagues in other departments these advantages. If however they wish to enjoy the same advantages, they have only to teach English as a vocational subject. The proposal that they should do so is nevertheless a controversial one. Indeed—at least as it is usually conceived—Vocational English is such a straitjacket that no English teacher who understands the reach and purchase of his subject will consent to be confined to it.

This narrow concept of vocational English is that a student should be taught—or rather trained in—those special uses of English required by the nature of his employment. For example, no student whose only use for language on the job is oral should pay attention to writing, and, as far as writing goes, secretaries, for example, need only to learn how to write business letters, engineers to write reports, and so on. Against this, the English teacher rightly protests that these peculiar skills are best acquired in the context of their actual use by a student with a fully developed linguistic ability.

His right to protest against such a narrow syllabus does not, however, give him the right simply to plough his own furrow, irrespective of the felt needs of his students, and if he insists on pursuing his own unique, inimitable way, in the event he disables himself as a teacher. From his colleagues in other departments his efforts will encounter, at the best, indifference, and, at the all too frequent worst, downright suspicion and hostility. Worst of all, unless he is unusually able and enthusiastic, he will encounter a similar reaction from his students. What he has to offer them will not be the new and relevant kind of education which, after years of undistinguished childhood schooling they now see the adult point of.

The kind of education which they find respectable is both restricted and authoritative. It is restricted because it serves the students' need to acquire certain definite skills, and reassuringly concentrates his attention on the systematic process of acquiring them. It is authoritative because the teacher's function is that of an expert, one who manifestly possesses the desired skills, and makes no bones about his superiority to his students in this respect. Neither of these conditions, however, obtains in an English lesson conducted on the latest approved models, whereby a heterogeneous multitude of skills is acquired in a semi-haphazard manner, in the course of a series of conversations which, although the teacher may guide them, are essentially conversations among equals. However effective such a process may be in a school, it is unsuitable for further education. The student at a technical

college just does not see the point of going there, rather than to pub or club, for a conversation with equals, no matter how interesting.

It might be argued that this is simply a description of the challenge which every teacher of English in further education has to meet, and which some succeed in overcoming. At all costs, he must do his duty. The purpose of this article is to suggest that, while this is true, his duty to further education students is to supply a need which affects them, not generally as human beings, but quite specifically as students. Because it affects them as students it is possible to make them aware of it, and, once they are aware, the English lesson takes on a new and desirable seriousness. What this need is, and the lines on which the student can be made aware of it, are both suggested in the following communication which is used, in one technical college, to introduce day-release students to the subject of English.

> 'You may be surprised that although you are now a specialist technical student you are still studying English. What has English got to do with technical education ? The answer is that the better you are at English, the more easily you learn other subjects, which on the face of it, have nothing at all to do with language. You can probably remember people you knew at school who were really intelligent and yet did badly. Although they were intelligent, they could not catch on to what they were taught. When this happens it is usually found that the pupil who fails to do himself justice in his lessons is not as good at English as others of the same age, and it is not difficult to see why this should be so.
>
> You can't set your mind to anything without the help of words, and the more easily you are able to bring words to bear on a subject the more easily you master it. Now bringing words to bear on a subject means far more than just knowing what words mean. You will learn all the technical words you need in your technical classes, but you might learn all those words and even be able to perform all tasks involved in your job, and still not see the underlying connections between the things you are doing. If you don't see those connections, however, you cannot be a good technician, and are liable to make silly mistakes when conditions change, because you are guided by habit instead of by thought.
>
> This kind of thing is, of course, especially important in a period of rapid technical change, like the present. But it might seem to be none of an English teacher's business. After all, your technical teachers explain the connections between things which, as technicians, you need to understand. What does the English teacher know about it.
>
> The point is that you can't grasp your technical teacher's explanations unless you yourself have an explaining sort of mind. It's because they haven't got that sort of mind that intelligent pupils who are bad at English don't do themselves justice at school, and the people with explaining minds are those who have had practice in explaining and arguing about everything under the sun, not just their special subjects. That is why English is important to you, whatever your special subject may be.'

For the kind of student to whom it is directed, this missive—convincing though it may be to teachers in other departments and even to complaining employers—must itself become an object of study, and even then it will convince those who have already a few O-levels to their credit more readily than those who have none. Once it is grasped, however, its point is accepted with a revealing, even a pathetic, eager-

ness. There is no need for a full exposition of socio-linguistics to convince students in further education that their advancement must be accompanied by the development of linguistic skills.

What still remains questionable is the appropriate curriculum. Superficially it might appear that the desired skill is essentially a passive one —the ability to comprehend explanations easily and rapidly. As such, a course in rapid or efficient reading seems to be all that is required. Such a course is indeed a valuable component of any course of English in further education, but it can only play a minor part. When teachers of technical education offer explanations to their students, if they are good teachers they are doing more than parcelling information up into convenient packages. They are articulating their subject matter, exhibiting not merely its elements but also the connections between those elements. Their students too must be able to exercise the same grasp of connections. To see what their teachers are doing, they must be able to do the same thing themselves. They must learn to make explanations on their own account.

So far there is nothing alien to the spirit of technical education. The student is to be taught to produce something—an explanation—with a set of tools—language. Once this is accepted, a major step forward has already been achieved, for a major obstacle to improvement is the students' native sense that speaking (if not writing) is a process as natural and even automatic as breathing. But the problem still remains, how is the use of the tools to be developed?

The student, and often too the teacher of other subjects, expects that linguistic skills can be taught directly, in other words, by means of exercises. Why must the English teacher persist in directing his students' attention to likely human issues? Why can't he concentrate it directly on words? There is point in these questions, even if the criticism that lies behind them is often uninformed. The English teacher whose entire effort is directed to discussion and whose interest is concentrated entirely on the subject of discussion is certainly misguided. This point will be elaborated later. First it is worth considering to what extent exercises, which do concentrate the students' attention entirely on words, are a useful form of English teaching.

While the evidence is not conclusive, it now seems so doubtful that anything at all is learnt from the old-fashioned kind of exercise (in which passages are punctuated and prepositions fitted into slots) that an informed English teacher cannot, in good conscience, inflict them on his students. Exercises can, however, be devised to direct the student's attention to the necessary line of effort which, simply formulated, is to convert the implicit into the explicit. To some extent, therefore, certain kinds of exercise are to be encouraged for two reasons: they are directly useful, and they also establish something very important and otherwise in doubt, namely the purposefulness of the English lesson, the fact that it has an aim.

The first step is to get the student to understand the difference between explanation and expression. (The main thesis of the school of Bernstein is, of course, that in certain areas of society people can express themselves not merely adequately but also subtly without resort to explanation, which at best is an uncomfortable business.) To establish this distinction, as an exercise, the student can be given implicit statements to convert into explicit ones. These exercises are of three kinds.

The first kind of exercise is one of direct translation. For example, idioms such as 'up the creek' and 'round the bend' (idioms, that is, which the student actually employs) can be investigated to ascertain *how* they mean what they are unquestioningly accepted as meaning. Proverbs can similarly be analysed—not proverbs with which the student might optimistically be presumed to be familiar with, but unheard-of proverbs from a dictionary, which require the same kind of consideration as Shakespearian metaphors. e.g. 'What do you suppose the following proverb means, and why? "A handsaw is a good thing, but not to shave with".' Conversely, the student can be invited to use forms that involve deliberate compression, such as the *haiku* written by a first-year O.N.C. Engineering student:

> Silence in the hall.
> A sneeze, cough, a shuffle.
> The voice of the people.

The point of that kind of exercise is that it makes the student aware of the difference between the implicit and the explicit. The second kind of exercise aims at the clarification of their relationship, namely that the implicit offers relevant material without demonstrating how it hangs together. In other words, rendering an explicit judgement involves the demonstration of relevance whose existence may otherwise only be sensed. The second type of exercise, therefore, is one which establishes relevance and irrelevance. For the most part, these take a forensic or inquisitorial form—for example, considering what evidence would and what would not be relevant in the investigation of a criminal case, or devising questionnaires for highly specific purposes. But exercises are also required in the exhibition of relevance through sentence and paragraph structure, and for this nothing is better than the old Renaissance copying of models. A highly articulate argumentative passage is read and, once it has been thoroughly comprehended, the flesh of nouns, verbs and adjectives is removed, leaving the logical skeleton for the student to adapt to the purposes of some new argument of his own. The following example is taken from Johnson.

> *It must be agreed* that in most ages many countries have had part of their inhabitants in a state of slavery; *yet it may be doubted whether* slavery can ever be supposed the natural condition of man. *It is impossible not to conceive that* men in their original state were equal; *and very difficult to imagine how* one would be subjected to another but by violent compulsion. An individual *may indeed* forfeit his liberty by a crime; *but* he cannot, by that crime, forfeit the liberty of his children. *What is true of* a criminal *seems true likewise* of a captive . . . etc., etc.

Once the bearing of the various propositions upon one another has been grasped—in other words, when the logic has been grasped, the bearing of the conjunctions—the student is offered the bare structure constituted by the words in italics to put to a use of his own (or, if necessary, one of several suggested by the teacher). The aim, of course, is not for the student to acquire the style, but for him to acquire the logic.

It will already be apparent that, although it does not embrace all the possibilities of English as a subject, this limited approach goes far deeper educationally than might initially have seemed probable. The third kind of exercise is even more profound in its reach. This is made

at the elucidation of the assumptions of ready-made phrases which, in common discourse, serve as conclusive judgements. For example, the comment—'You don't know you're born'—proposes that all life involves suffering which must not, therefore, *ipso facto*, be regarded as matter for protest, and, more mysteriously, that everybody, at the start of life, was subjected to intense, dramatic suffering, even though he has forgotten it. 'You've had it' combines the acknowledgement that one has rights with the realistic perception that, in certain circumstances, a particular right may have to remain a legal fiction. 'Have a heart' is Shakespearian in its insight that human nature is not spontaneous but voluntary. (The voluntary element is, of course, implicit in the imperative form.) This is a very rich field. In work along these lines the teacher, in fact, is engaged in salvaging a possibly viable culture. But that is not the point. We are concerned only with the task of developing in students who have need of them the skills of explanation.

Exercises alone, however, are not enough to foster that development. They will show the student what being explicit means, and also how to be explicit, but they will not render him explicit on his own. (In the same way, exercises will train a pupil to distinguish 'there' from 'their' when he is asked to do so, but not to distinguish them when he is writing on his own.) The only way in which to make the student explicit on his own is to encourage him to explain himself. In further education, therefore, just as in other education, the essential form of the English lesson must be a conversation about live issues in which students feel personally involved. The difference, as already suggested, is that it is not a conversation among equals. The teacher, even in this highly personal field, still plays an authoritative role—not only teaching, but being seen to teach.

What is important here is to clarify the nature of the authority he wields. What gives credibility to the teaching situation is his authority as a user of words, not as a pedlar of opinions. It is not, therefore, authority of a kind which, if the students accepted it, would kill conversation, or if they rejected it, sink the whole lesson. What gives him his authority is his knowledge of what constitutes an explanation, and his consequent insistence on receiving one. Instead of going out of his way, as he is tempted to by sympathy, to grasp what lies behind his students' observations, he must insist upon their bringing their concealed assumptions out into the open. The reason why some people cannot use language explicitly is precisely their reliance upon sympathy in the listener. This sympathy is therefore the teacher's peculiar function to deny. In the English lesson, at any rate, nothing goes without saying. Even at the cost of appearing a moral imbecile, when a student says of some unthinkable thing—'That would never do'—the teacher must enquire—'Why not?' It is his job to reduce the area of the unthinkable, not to be one of the boys.

This kind of operation can be carried on as a natural part of the conversation. The questions it requires the teacher to ask are questions anyone might ask. 'What has that got to do with it?' 'Are you saying P?': (Here offering a proposition which either faithfully or misleadingly purports to offer an explicit translation of the observation made by the student). 'Could you explain that more fully?' 'What grounds do you have for saying that?' 'If you say that, would you also say this?' Or, quite simply, 'Why?' But these questions are not natural parts of

the conversation. They are parts of the lesson, and it is only as such that they are required. By putting them to his students the teacher maintains his role, and the lesson—for it is a lesson—remains an English lesson.

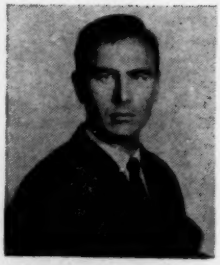
The situation may, of course, arise where the live issue under discussion—for example, race relations—makes the teacher feel that his role as an English specialist must yield to his duty as a man. In such a case he may well feel that to encourage his students to make the views they actually hold explicit, without first correcting them, would be irresponsible. There is no reason why he should not show his hand, in such a case, but if he thinks that by so doing he will put his students right he is mistaking the nature of his authority. As already suggested, the only authority which his students will accord him is that of a superior technician. To think, however, that this kind of authority implies a neglect of values is, in the case of the English specialist, cynical and irrational. It assumes that all views can be rendered equally cogent. If this were so, there would in fact be no more reason to regard the view he himself regards as proper than that which he opposes. In the event, he will find that in encouraging his students to make their views explicit he is also encouraging them to revise those views.

It is a question of structures—in the plural. This is why teaching the use of explicit English in a college of further education, like teaching rhetoric in the Renaissance, is the fundamental liberal study. It insists on the exhibition of a structure which would otherwise have remained concealed. As a result of this process, a student can come to realise that even when, to the best of his ability, he speaks the truth, his words are not directly mirroring the truth, but are structuring it. Once he comes to realise this, he may also come to realise that alternative structures are possible. Or to express it in the more limited terms of technical education, no longer satisfied by rote learning, the student feels the need to understand. (The reader will find that this word itself, with its concealed metaphor of stepping beneath, is a fruitful subject for explication which, when completed, expounds the entire syllabus).

Students both criticise teaching practice and ask for more of it. This article describes a scheme which involves them fully in the problems of running a school.

A Study of a School

R. COWEN AND R. G. H. ANDREWS



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Students on teaching practice have the three interlinked tasks of orienting themselves to the external and internal environment of a school, of observing existing members of the school staff teaching, and finally, with this information to help them, gradually or suddenly taking over some sections of the timetable.

Once they have taken over their teaching practice timetable they are heavily involved in attempting to sustain or raise their level of specific classroom teaching skills. In order to carry out their teaching tasks they have to gain some insight into the way in which the school is organised in departments, the methods of stock control and the arrangements for communication between staff and so on.

What is, however, lacking in this situation is any overall insight into the organisation of the school as a unit, and any coherent grasp of the working of individual departments from the point of view of the head of department. Nor is any insight, save by accident or through the student's own sensitivity, given into the problems which a headmaster or deputy head may be facing. The nature of the school as a working institution, with a range of problems that are certainly not eased by the presence of students, is not dealt with normally in any but a formal, theoretical way in courses of training, unless a mechanism other than teaching practice exists.

In this kind of situation it would not seem an unreasonable contribution to the training of teachers to examine a school in toto, with rather more emphasis on obtaining a heuristic picture than is normally the case.

An opportunity to attempt this occurred when one of the authors of this article was appointed to the headship of a large new secondary modern school, which is due to become an all-through comprehensive school in 1972. This mixed school was formed by the amalgamation of two single-sex schools. The other author of this article, a member of the staff of one of the schools in the amalgamation, was appointed to a college of education post.

The school concerned is a new school and is situated in one of the outer London boroughs. The area in which it is situated may fairly be called an 'ageing urban area', to quote the Newsom report, although considerable re-housing is in progress. The school building itself is new

* For example, at Furzedown College of Education, students work in schools for half a day per week from the start of their course. This "Tuesday–Thursday" work helps diminish the initial strain of teaching practice. More important, in this context, is the fact that many head teachers, receiving "Tuesday–Thursday" students, are prepared to explain the workings of the school to students.

in the sense that its oldest part was built in the fifties and its newest sections were still being constructed a term after the school opened.

The staff of the school was made up by absorbing those members of staff who had been previously employed in the two secondary modern schools which were amalgamated and who wished to be employed in the new school. The remaining posts were filled by advertising them.

Pupils in the school, with the exception of the first year, of course, had previously attended one of the amalgamated schools. As the new school was built around the existing girls' school buildings, the girls were subjected to less physical upheaval than the boys, whose very old school—located on another site—was demolished. For both groups of pupils this was their first experience of co-education since leaving junior school. Before amalgamation both schools had experienced the sort of behavioural problems which some children in these difficult urban areas produce in schools and in both schools it had been necessary to provide specialist teachers of immigrant children. Both schools before amalgamation had run CSE and GCE courses.

The headmaster took up his post a term before the school opened in order to plan for the opening the following term. It was agreed that he would visit Furzedown College of Education to outline his ideas as to how he would wish to organise his new school and then accept a group of students from the College to visit the school. It was to the first year education division that he explained his plans in the term before the school was opened.

Early in the opening term this same group of students visited the school for a day. No formal programme for the day had been arranged by the school; the students were at liberty to go where they pleased and to talk with whom they liked.

At College it had been agreed that they would concentrate their energies (apart from pursuing their personal interests in main subjects, etc.) on certain aspects of the school's life.

It was agreed that attention would be given to the views of the staff on streaming, co-education, the house system, punishment, and the size of the school. Each of these areas represented an area of change, either imposed by the circumstances (size, co-education) or affected by policy decisions. In the three areas of punishment, un-streaming and the house system it was known that the new arrangements would diverge from the situations which had existed in the amalgamated schools.

It was further agreed that the second major area of attention would be the attitudes of heads of departments. If available, they were to be asked a number of questions relevant to the organisation of their departments: (i) what balance of resources they envisaged within their departments between the demands of preparing pupils for external examinations and the problems set by the area in which the school is located; (ii) whether they were preparing formal plans for inter-departmental co-operation; (iii) what their own attitudes were to non-streaming; (iv) whether they were prepared to introduce innovations of teaching method (e.g. team-teaching); (v) what was the intended frequency of departmental meetings and, if they were prepared to say, what degree of participation and power they were prepared to allow to new members of staff in their departments; and

finally (vi) whether they felt it was part of their duties to extend the pupils' learning possibilities by creating clubs or societies which were essentially linked with the area of learning (broadly interpreted) that was the concern of their department.

A third major area of inquiry, it was decided, would be the functioning of the house system; also to observe certain general features of school life, such as behaviour in the playgrounds and dining halls, the rituals of the school, 'approach behaviour' between staff and pupils and developing hierarchies among the pupils. And all students—obviously—agreed to talk to as many children or groups of children as was humanly possible in the time available.

The rationale which ties together these various areas of inquiry was the decision to try and assess those factors in the school situation which would assist change and those factors which would restrain change (along the lines indicated in the headmaster's planning).

The visit to the school took place early in the first term of the school's life. The head reminded the students of certain of his plans and indicated that uncompleted building (especially uncompleted workshops) were posing problems. The deputy headmaster and the senior mistress offered themselves for questioning and then were available to be interviewed personally by students. Other students departed to interview heads of departments, subject specialists, house masters, and to watch classes being taught, etc.

After the visit the headmaster and senior mistress visited Furzedown and participated in a seminar. This seminar had prepared on the previous Friday a set of areas for discussion and these were presented for comment. There were basically two types of questions: (a) those 'noted', i.e. those requiring further information, and (b) those considered to broach issues, i.e. those requiring explanation (e.g. judgment on policy issues).

The following items were among those 'noted' by students.
(i) Given that the head had inherited those members of the staffs of two schools who had decided to remain in service, and given that this had produced imbalances in terms of the range of specialisation on his staff, what were his future planning ideas about staff recruitment?

(ii) It was suggested that as far as could be discerned that changes to co-education had as yet little major impact on the children of the school. It was asked whether—without mentioning names—there were any teachers who, previously successful, were finding the transition a strain.

(iii) The size of the school had been felt likely to pose problems, though as far as the students had been able to discover there were no apparent problems stressed by the children. The headmaster was asked if any cases had come to his notice which could probably be attributed to the size of the school.

(iv) A question was asked about the balance of resources between the departments as it had been noticed that the Mass Media Department was apparently spending a great deal of money. This turned out to be an accident of the arrival of equipment and this department was comparatively no better equipped than any other. A supplementary question was put on the place of publicity in the thinking of a headmaster.

Issue questions were then put. These concerned areas which, in the judgment of the students, could become the centres of conflicting opinions as the school developed or those areas which would require action to prevent them becoming areas of conflict as the school matured.

In each of the issues the question was put impersonally, i.e. in some such form as 'How does a headmaster deal with this kind of problem?' The problems of streaming were surveyed, where it had been noticed there were differential enthusiasms between departments; the problems of punishment where it was clear that corporal punishment was still favoured by certain members of the staff; also questions on the role of house masters. It was asked whether there was in fact consensus between house masters on the nature of their duties and whether there had been any tendency for the house masters to act as centrifugal forces and what system of communication the head intended with the house masters as a group.

The general problem of communication was raised. It was the students' opinion that at the level of principles—e.g. unstreaming, a diminution in the use of corporal punishment, etc.—the headmaster's policy was spelt out. It had also been noticed that through a weekly letter to staff various details of school, e.g. pupil absence procedure, were kept under review. These two policy areas were termed level A and level B respectively. The head was asked about what the students termed level C —the problem of ensuring articulation of these policies as between different members of staff and the problems of enduring that the general policy (level A) was incorporated into the life of the school. The students were very interested in the problems of operationalising general policy.

The question was also posed how a headmaster could deal with the inevitable (given the 'inheritance' situation) problems of differences of educational philosophy between senior members of staff in particular and what degree of difference a headmaster could see as tolerable and what courses of action were open to the headmaster when these limits were passed.

The necessary conditions of such a scheme as has been outlined are, of course, access to a school and a co-operative head and staff.
The advantages to the college student are relatively clear.

(i) He gains an insight into the problems confronting those who will occupy superior positions in the school's hierarchy when he is appointed to his first post.

(ii) He sees at first hand the problems of timetable construction and allocation of resources, both of which may affect him very closely as a teacher.

(iii) He may see more of the different methods of teaching in one school in this one-day visit than he will see as a full-time teacher in a year.

(iv) He can participate by proxy in the formation of policy and see the problems of keeping all members of a large staff equally informed of salient decisions.

(v) He has a unique opportunity of asking questions of a head without being in any formal position of dependence on that head.

(vi) He can approach children in the role of interviewer rather than teacher, for one of the last times in his career.

(vii) He has the chance of relatively unbiased discussion of what he has seen. He is not dependent on the 'conventional wisdom' of the staffroom.

(viii) He can use the school as a case study in which to relate his theoretical discussions in education.

What was most gratifying about the visit and the seminar was the amount of enthusiasm generated amongst the students. A number felt that their understanding of the links between educational theory and practice had been markedly strengthened; others used their free day to maintain contacts with the school; and all were highly sensible of the privileged position they had occupied during the visit and the subsequent seminar. Judging by the level of student enthusiasm alone, the scheme would seem worthy of repetition in other areas—at both primary and secondary level.

An account of how Shropshire primary teachers devised various ways of consulting together.

Junior Workshop

M. ELLISON

Mary Ellison has been primary schools advisor for Shropshire since 1956. After teaching in schools for several years she became a senior lecturer in education at Whitelands College, Putney.

In 1956 I was appointed Adviser for Primary Education in Shropshire. My main interests lay in the fields of curriculum development and in-service training. After some four years of getting to know the county four major problems had come to the surface:

One—the isolation of heads in two and three-teacher village schools in this rural county.
Two—the lack of continuity and development in the teachers' courses which were largely run as weekend courses at Attingham Park, the adult college near Shrewsbury.
Three—the narrowness of much of the work in schools.
Four—the need to increase the amount and quality of the discussion concerned with educational ideas.

A partial answer to these problems might be the establishment of a permanent study group of junior school teachers to discuss common problems, new developments and current educational ideas. Seventy to eighty teachers turned up one evening at Attingham Park to discuss the idea. At the end of the evening the following points had been made:

One—there should be ample opportunity for discussion so that people could get to know each other well.
Two—heads of village schools should have an opportunity to meet and discuss on their own.
Three—some meetings should be held in different parts of the county.
Four—special attention should be given to mathematics and natural history.

Much has happened since that early meeting when the germ of the idea of Junior Workshop was looked at. It was launched on an evening in November, 1962 at Attingham Park when Mr K. Gardner came from the Walsall remedial centre to talk about the Augmented Roman Alphabet, now known as the initial teaching alphabet. After his talk the seventy teachers present broke up into groups for discussion, the village school heads forming one group in the library. This pattern of a talk followed by group discussions has remained the basic Junior Workshop pattern ever since. Usually group discussions are followed by a short time before coffee when leaders report back briefly or put questions to the speaker. Such a Junior Workshop meeting is held each half term. When the number of teachers attending passed one hundred we had to move out of Attingham Park to Radbrook College and from there, two years ago, to the Council Chamber at the new Shirehall where up to two hundred teachers can be most comfortably, indeed luxuriously seated, and where committee rooms are available for the six or seven discussion groups. It has been most rewarding over the years to find a steady rise in the level of discussion, in the skill

shown in handling a group and in reporting back to the main body. Visitors never fail to comment on this. Shropshire Junior teachers support these meetings in large numbers with loyalty and enthusiasm. They welcome the opportunity to hear Sir Alec Clegg, or Lady Plowden or Mr J. Burrows HMI or a head from Oxfordshire or a member of the university staff but they also appreciate an opportunity to hear from their own colleagues. Now in preparation for an evening on children writing, when a head and a deputy head will talk about their work and their own growth in sensitivity towards the use of words.

For a time the heads of village schools formed one of the discussion groups at Junior Workshop meetings until it was suggested they might meet on a separate occasion. And so the group known as Heads of Small Schools was formed. This meets for one afternoon each term perhaps to discuss a main Junior Workshop lecture further or to hear about an interesting piece of work, as for example this term when the head of a two-teacher school showed and talked about the work his children did following a four day environmental study visit to Borth. Because of the difficulties heads experience in working in cramped inadequate buildings special attention has been given to ways of improving the classroom environment. With the help of charts, diagrams and examples, the design of light mobile furniture to replace desks and tall cupboards has been discussed; the lay-out of classrooms to create work areas for small groups; the storage of materials, equipment, so that it is easily accessible to children and the display of children's work so that it is aesthetically pleasing. Over the years members of the group have got to know each other very well indeed and look forward to these termly meetings attended by forty to fifty colleagues dealing with similar problems. New heads, including newcomers to the county, are readily made to feel at home.

It seemed only right that heads of large junior schools should also have their own forum. They too meet for one afternoon each term. Very often a member of the group will have prepared a paper which is circulated before the meeting. This forms the starting point of discussion perhaps on some aspect of the curriculum, of relations with the community, or a matter of school organisation. The topic this term is Team Teaching and discussion will be based on the experiences of a Shrewsbury school as described by the headmaster. These meetings are an opportunity to learn what others think and do, to consider possibilities, to test and refine arguments. The small school in a rural county can seem isolated but the head of a large town school is isolated in his own office.

At a meeting called to consider further the initial request for the establishment of a group to be concerned with Natural History it was decided that this should essentially be an active group. Lectures, film evenings and talks were ruled out. Members agreed to concern themselves with getting to know the county and to developing their work with children. They further agreed to meet for one full Saturday each term and this is the pattern which has been maintained since.

From thirty to fifty teachers meet, usually in a village school and spend the morning seeing and hearing of the environmental study work of the school and preparing for the afternoon's expedition. Very often the group is joined by experts with detailed knowledge of the locality, or specialists in the fields of industrial archaeology, botany, forestry,

geology and history. There have been many memorable days: the morning the children from the Stiperstones portrayed in drama how their forbears lived as miners; the view from the top of Brown Clee; the afternoon by the Shropshire meres; the walk through the Wye Forest in the rain. Such shared experiences have enabled and encouraged members to widen and enrich their work in integrated studies. They have formed a spearhead in the county which has led the way in environmental studies, pressed the need for Field Centres for primary children, and the need for transport to make it possible for small groups of children to study at depth. The film, *An Environmental Study*, shows the work of one class of fourth year juniors in a Shrewsbury school and indicates what can be achieved.

Work based on first hand experiences outside the school highlighted the juniors' need to tell of what they had seen, heard, touched and felt in a wide variety of ways. Many teachers spoke of their lack of confidence in dealing with paint, collage, wood, scraper board, lino tools, clay, plaster, wire and other materials. To meet this need members of Junior Workshop come to Attingham Park for one day each term to work with materials under the guidance of a head teacher. As numbers grew two Creative Activities Groups were formed. To begin with they were essentially concerned with the exploratory use of materials but gradually the emphasis shifted to communication. Over the years the scope of the work has widened to include not only the use of art and craft materials but also experience in movement, sound, drama and writing. Usually the day begins with a common experience shared by forty teachers. There might be listening to music or poetry, going out and looking at something, handling objects in the room, or exploring an idea. Sometimes there is little preparation, sometimes much time and thought is given to it, as for example when a group of teachers prepared a tape on The Bible, which included readings, music and singing.

One day each term may not sound much but this regular commitment over the years has given many teachers, confidence in their own ability to create, and insight into the value of creative activities in the education of the whole child. The film made last summer entitled *The Creative Spirit* shows something of what is being attempted by children and teachers in the county.

Within the past three years, two further groups have been established by Junior Workshop viz. the Poetry Group and the First Seven Years' Group—largely for young teachers.

The Poetry Group meets on four evenings a term. It has a core of twenty or thirty very keen members and a larger number who come occasionally to meetings—which although relaxed and informal, are yet serious and purposeful. The emphasis is on reading and sharing interest and enjoyment in poetry but since all present are teachers there is also discussion of children's response to poetry and consideration of their writing. Very often members bring to meetings poems they wish to read, occasionally a poet is invited to read and talk of his work, sometimes a programme of readings is prepared by a member or a small group, at times a local poetry reading is attended or an evening is devoted to reading children's work. Last January when Junior Workshop held their yearly social evening they were most royaly entertained by members of the poetry group with verse, prose and sound.

When a young teacher said she found it difficult to come to Junior Workshop meetings at Shirehall because there were so many people and so many imposing looking headmasters, it was clearly time to launch the group for young teachers.

Members of Junior Workshop who had been teaching for less than seven years were invited to meet and discuss the kind of group they would like to have. Ideas ranged from discussion of present social and educational problems, to visits to the theatre and social evenings. The group began by discussing aims and purposes, and went on to consider the role of the head and the deputy head and relations between school and home. In spite of the initial insistence that they wanted simply to talk together the most popular meetings have been those where distinguished class teachers have talked about their work. This term an infant teacher with a small group of children in a village school described their investigations of seeds, plants and small garden creatures. Each child's voyage of discovery was so described that the fifty or so teachers present were able to appreciate more fully the meaning behind such phrases as, learning by experience, integration, use of the senses, the development of language, individual differences, formation of concepts, and the importance of teacher-child relationships.

It would seem that the quality of work in the schools is closely related to the dialogue going on between teachers. Junior Workshop exists simply to put teachers in the county in touch with each other and in touch with current thinking and developments in the country as a whole. Members not only discuss at meetings, more and more they visit each other's schools, they share their expertise and joint projects are undertaken. These include neighbouring schools gathering together for an afternoon of informal music making, or meeting regularly over a period of time to carry out some local study or project, or offering hospitality and a base to children and teachers who wish to do environmental work in the area.

To enrich the dialogue three years ago *News and Views* was launched. This is published yearly and includes brief accounts of Junior Workshop activities and articles contributed by teachers. These are largely descriptive of particularly good and interesting work being done in a classroom or school, together with some discussion of underlying principles. *News and Views* can challenge a teacher to think out what he is doing and can open eyes to new possibilities. The present issue includes articles on Religious Education, Mathematics, and changing from secondary teaching to primary teaching.

The success of Junior Workshop reflects the enthusiasm and determination of Shropshire junior school teachers to do the best for their children.

TREND-SETTER

Analysing Learning Situations

How can students commencing their professional preparation in a college of education learn to analyse and evaluate their observations of children at work in school? This question seems basic if indeed we expect students to do more than soak up an 'atmosphere' or notice the obvious and superficial. Perhaps the first step is to make students aware of the complexity of the learning situations they observe or in which they are actively involved, and it was with the intention of achieving such an awareness during their first few weeks in college that the education department this year decided to use its time allocation during the first half-term to provide a programme of six weekly half-day study conferences.

The study conferences were designed to provide practical experience in observing children at work and in analysing such observations. Clearly we had to have children to observe and we found the recent DES film, 'Patterns of Learning', particularly useful for this purpose. There is not space in this short article to consider the relative merits of film, CCTV, and live observations, nor if both real and vicarious experience are provided, whether one should precede the other or whether both should occur concurrently. It was decided that to base the work on film extracts would, for this experimental run, allow for adequate preparation and simple organisation.

Each of the first five conferences followed a similar pattern. A short film extract was shown to the whole year group and after being rewound was immediately repeated. The students then separated into their six education groups and went to tutorial rooms where they discussed the extract they had just seen, meeting a different tutor each week. To guide them they were provided each week with a handout on which were printed questions to direct groups to different areas of enquiry. Including the coffee break, about an hour and a half was available for group discussion before the whole year group reassembled in the lecture theatre to hear the various group reports. The tutor's role during the group work was to control the discussion and guide the form of reporting which over the six weeks explored several means of communication. After the reports the film extract was shown for the third and last time and the students left. The half-hour at the end of each morning's programme was taken up with a staff seminar at which the morning's work was discussed and the next week's work prepared. During the six weeks' programme, all tutors in the department were involved and all tutors joined in the opening session and the closing seminar each week. During the group work, tutors not directly involved in leading a group that day sometimes joined in and on one occasion a group of visiting teachers and head teachers was involved. Five different tutors took responsibility in turn for leading a morning's work.

The film 'Patterns of Learning' was one of several considered and was viewed and discussed by a group of tutors before the summer vacation. It presents a kaleidoscope of shots, without commentary, as if one were permitted to drop in on a variety of activities in several schools. Taken as a complete film it is perhaps lacking in structure and purpose even though it opens with shots of young children and moves on progressively to older ones. There is a lot of dodging about and at times varied situations follow each other with almost bewildering speed. Perhaps students, new to a college and involved in a series of visits to schools find such experiences equally bewildering. Unlike the experience in school however, using the film one can focus upon a situation and repeat it.

Three extracts were chosen for study. The first showed a group of infant children engaged in a variety of activities involved in making tomato chutney from tomatoes grown in the school garden. The activities included picking the tomatoes, weighing them, reading instructions, writing records, collecting other ingredients and finding out about them, preparing the ingredients, taking the raw chutney to the school kitchen to be cooked, bottling the cooked chutney and comparing the capacity of the jars, pricing and buying the chutney—and eating it. The whole sequence lasted about four minutes. Here are some of the questions which different groups were asked to consider:

As a possible future teacher of infants, consider how some of these activities might be developed.

What are these children learning? Identify as many different kinds of learning as you can.

What links can you see with the children's homes in these activities?

What kinds of home backgrounds do you think the children have?

Are these children working or playing?

Should this sort of activity be permitted in school?

On this first occasion, all the reports were made orally, a member of each group reporting to the whole year on the group's behalf.

The second extract lasted for about a minute and showed junior school children involved in measuring activities. The questions asked included:

In what ways does the mathematics teaching seen in the film differ from the conventional mathematics teaching such as you probably received?

In what respect is mathematical knowledge different from other forms of knowledge?

Record as many of the activities as you can and note the apparatus used.

What do you think the children are doing? What do *they* think they are doing?

This time, the reporting included the use of handouts, tape recordings and dialogue as well as straight verbal reporting.

The third extract which again lasted only for a minute or two showed secondary school pupils engaged in a project about heating. They were shown carrying out experiments in the laboratory, making a survey of housewives' opinions and considering the design of electric heaters. Class, group and individual situations were evident. Some of the questions were:

Identify and attempt to categorise as many as possible of the questions and answers of various people during the film excerpt. (A transcript of this excerpt was provided).

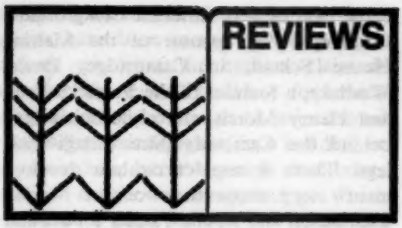
Were you aware of an attempt by one of the teachers to change the opinion of one of his pupils? Was this justified?

Which of the activities remind you of your own secondary education and which do not?

The fourth and fifth conferences used material from another source but the sixth and final conference took a different form. The students were asked to examine all the thirty questions the groups had been asked over the whole period and to attempt to classify them. After groups had reported, this time using a very wide variety of methods including simple listing, Venn diagrams and diagrams to show relationships, the series of conferences closed with a general discussion.

Reflecting upon the experiment, tutors felt that students had become aware of the complexity of learning and teaching situations and had become more skilful in trying to analyse them. In addition, students were beginning to realise that an educational situation could be viewed from different viewpoints. At a purely practical level they had been actively involved throughout and had collectively experienced a considerable variety of communication media, as well as fifty students at least having had the experience of speaking to the year as a whole. We were particularly impressed by the enthusiasm and confidence of the students and in allowing the ideas to come from them learnt a good deal ourselves.

J. A. S. Richardson
(*Teesside College of Education*)



State School

R. F. Mackenzie

Penguin £0.25.

Reconnaissance on an Educational Frontier

R. A. Hodgkin

OUP £0.90 (paper £0.45)

Mr Mackenzie's views on education have something in common with D. H. Lawrence's. It is appropriate, therefore, that his book should contain a highland gamekeeper, one who describes teachers (and others who have undergone the conditioning of higher education) as 'sookit oranges'.

State School—an anthology drawn from three previous books by Mr Mackenzie—is concerned with a secondary modern school in the Scottish coalfields. The school opened in 1957, and is to close in 1971.

At times the book inclines to the discursive and anecdotal; at times its prose is flowery and self-conscious. But it makes effective attack on the banishing of the senses from education, on an authority and establishment which is losing touch with a new generation, on a sterile and meaningless academic respectability. Mr Mackenzie is especially moving when defeated—by his own staff over the abolition of corporal punishment, and by the education committee over the very existence of his school.

Mr Hodgkin, Headmaster of Abbotsholme School for twelve years, also pleads for more unhurried contact between old and young, for a deeper concern for individuals, for acceptance of the central idea of 'soul' stripped of its mediaeval associations.

The educational frontier he examines is that one at which the child begins to enlarge his total field of consciousness, where 'novelty' breaks through, where there is a common perception of spiritual and material universe. The frontier lands Mr Hodgkin particularly surveys during his 'pedestrian reconnaissance' are those of dream, inner thought, symbol. These are difficult areas to reconnoitre in general terms, and sometimes the book may seem pretentious when too far away from individual boys and Abbotsholme.

Both authors are anxious for the educational process to be seen as a whole, and to be an intuitive and artistic one rather than carefully charted or pseudo-scientific. Both authors share qualities not uncommon in headmasters—they are concerned, compassionate and enthusiastic men, perhaps slightly inclined to be too talkative.

G.P.M.

Educational Research in Britain—Vol. 2

Ed. H. J. Butcher and H. B. Pont

University of London Press £3.25

The Teacher and the Needs of Society in Evolution

Ed. E. J. King

Pergamon Press £2

It is very much to be hoped that the U.L.Ps. indispensable summaries of current research with excellent index and bibliography will continue to appear at two year intervals. This, the second, follows the same general lines as its predecessor. An important addition is a chapter on the economics of education but this is brief and rather less than complete. The first three chapters of the new volume deal with the current work of the NFER, the Schools Council and the National Bureau for Cooperation in Child Care. Essays on research into various aspects of the curriculum follow. Research into the puzzling but extensive field of further education is not included in this volume. Professor

Morris's chapter on Education for Business and Management hardly does justice to work in this field outside the universities and appears to have been a long time in the press to judge from its reference to the Platt Report. As with economics more about further or tertiary or upper secondary education will be expected in the 1972 volume.

Dr King's collection of essays—astonishingly the 1000th volume in Pergamon's Commonwealth and International Library of Science, Technology, Engineering and Liberal Studies—is a parade of research talent. The unifying theme is in commitment to change, 'The future is of our making', claims Dr King at the start. We are concerned, writes Dr Wall near the end, 'with education as a deliberately constructive process intended to foster and accelerate human change to match and control the changes man makes in his environment'. An essay of particular interest to teachers and administrators is that by Miss Elizabeth Adams on the vital question of teachers attitudes to curriculum development projects and the way these have been influenced in the county of Surrey.

D.M.H.

Adventures in Education

Willem van der Eyken and Barry Turner

Allen Lane, The Penguin Press
£2.10

This book is not just for the experts, thank God. For this reason alone, 'Adventures in Education' is refreshing; it reminds us that people come before ideas, indeed that it is people in the first place who have the ideas. It is no coincidence it takes Willem van der Eyken and Barry Turner, both of them journalists as well as educationalists, to underline this basic fact and to dare to give their book such a naive title. 'Adventures in Education' could be just as easily called 'Adventurers in Education'. Three of the five stories deal with consciously conceived educational innovations stemming from the thinking of three men of very different backgrounds: Geoffrey Pyke, sponsor of the Malting House School, in Cambridge, Ernest Westlake, a founder of the Forest School, and Henry Morris, the philosopher-king behind the Cambridgeshire Village College. There is one 'curriculum development' story about the work of Marion Richardson and Robin Tanner for art and craft. The other is about innovation out of rebellion against parish-pump politicians and parsons, a row about school heating which led ultimately to the building of another school altogether, the Burston Strike School privately sponsored and independently run.

Journalistically speaking, each of the five educational experiments described has a superb story-line with vivid central characters: the Burston Rebellion is utterly dramatic and ought to be made into a film, though whether the director should be Frank Capra or the Boulting Brothers is a matter of opinion; all could be TV documentaries, either full-length narrative/pictorial or Fyfe Robertson/investigatory; controversial. Educationally speaking it would not be stretching things too far to say that a lay reader of these stories would be left at least being aware of certain basic principles of educational philosophy and psychology (some still controversial), as well as having some idea of the way the 'system' works, or, perhaps more important, does not work, in moments of crisis. In other words, like BBC feature programmes in the good old days, 'Adventures in Education' entertains and instructs and indeed leaves behind a series of very vivid characters, themselves the outward and visible signs of the educational ideas which they initiated and sometimes had to fight for: Pyke of the Malting House School, by his speculations, owner at one time of one-third of all the tin and copper held in Great Britain, or Henry Morris, lover of poetry, dining by candle light, sporting his yellow braces and scarlet suit at the Cambridgeshire Education Offices in the age of Stanley Baldwin and Ramsey MacDonald. Superficial? Journalistic? Of course, but somehow ideas, or the germ of them, are best understood in the context of the whole man.

It seems incredible that none of these stories have been recorded in any depth before, yet what the authors claim is substantially true. The ideas for which their educational heroes and heroines stood may still physically exist, in a building or a curriculum, but the people themselves are in danger of disappearing, which would be a pity. Mr van der Eyken and Mr Turner perhaps point the way: a few more biographies and a lot fewer educational theories might, in our present state of development, leave us all just that bit saner.

J.B.P.

Sound and Silence

by John Paynter and Peter Aston

CUP £3 (paper £1.50)
An LP record is also available (£2.10)

Sound and Silence appears, to this reviewer, to be the most significant book on the teaching of music so far written this century. It is concerned both with the nature and function of music. In an excellent statement about the contribution of music to the total education of any child or student, the authors, (both experienced teachers) whilst acknowledging the value of performing and listening, stress the importance of including a creative element. 'Music is a rich means of expression and we must not deny our children the chance to use it.'

This is not a formal course book, but it does provide suggestions for creative experiment through a series of projects all having some bearing upon the principles underlying twentieth century music. The authors develop their theme in an evolutionary sequence: firstly they advocate the exploration, selection and organisation of the raw materials of sound; they then show possible ways in which words, movement, drama and music can significantly interact upon each other. Arising from these varying experiences, the discovery of melody, heterophony and harmony can ensue. From that point formal training in harmony can begin; too often at present, theoretical trivia are prematurely thrust upon the student before the creative flame has ever been kindled. Throughout this book, the emphasis is upon an imaginative and sensitive use of the available resources of sound; the teaching of notation follows the experience.

Alongside all the projects, constant reference is made to examples of twentieth century music—the book would be worth buying for its comprehensive discography alone. It is enriched by visual illustrations which include photographs and black and white reproductions of paintings, engravings and sculpture, again chiefly from the present century. This admirable feature of the book should help the teacher of music to realise that he and his colleagues in the other arts are working along similar lines.

Sound and Silence is fascinating to read, for the authors have communicated the excitements of discovery and achievement experienced by those who took part in the projects. The book will greatly encourage all those who are already including creative work in their music sessions and it should stimulate others to begin. The examples on the companion LP record, impressive in themselves, should prove to any doubters that good standards of choral singing can be maintained in the performance of original compositions.

J.M.S.

The Teacher as Manager

George Taylor (Ed.)

NCET £1

The teacher-manager is the teacher who makes decisions, and decisions must relate to objectives: one of the most exhaustive (and exhausting) attempts to analyse and categorise these objectives was made in Bloom's Taxonomy. Ian McMullen suggests a simpler classification into objectives relating to personal attitudes, knowledge, logical processes, skills, and creative activities. Such a taxonomy may or may not be generally agreed: even if it were to be agreed, a wide gulf remains between

theoretical models of the learning situation and the reality of the school situation. Furthermore, the primary purpose of the conceptual models is to inform the teacher as manager in practical and constructive ways; the sociological structure of the school as an institution must be taken into consideration in decision taking; again, the major impetus for change in education often comes from outside the school itself.

Michael Armstrong attempts to minimise the dangers of a purely abstract approach by relating his argument to a concrete school situation, in this case a decision on the 'unstreaming' of part of a secondary school organisation. His conclusion is that the implications of this one particular organisational change are extremely complex and far-reaching: no major change in a section of a school can be judged separately from the effect which it may have on other parts of the school organisation, for a single change triggers a chain reaction.

Advancing towards the microcosm, how much freedom does the individual teacher have to initiate and to manage within the classroom situation? Controls are applied through a variety of means: society, employer, parents, and the constraints of the external examination system are but a few. A further difficulty lies in the fact that many successful teachers are nevertheless not able to formulate their aims clearly and convincingly. Thus the point is reiterated: the application of management techniques to education is made exceptionally difficult, because of the lack of unambiguous statements of the intended terminal objectives.

The design of the school building itself and the immediate environment of the child in the learning situation constitute additional important factors which must be also considered in any management system. In particular we need to remember that the internal form and shape of schools should not remain immutable throughout the life of the building: environments can be created as well as being accepted.

In the chapter on staffing and personnel deployment, Dr Briault poses the pertinent question of how teachers in fact do use their time. Very little information of a quantitative character is available on this topic and as far as can be judged at the moment, it would seem that many decisions are taken on a purely *ad hoc* basis: if the teacher is to be regarded as a manager, an element of prior personal planning by the teacher is indicated.

The teacher-manager has under his control an increasing variety of 'hardware' resources—the library, tapes, slides, language laboratory, television, radio: all these need to be 'managed'. Again, education cannot expect to be able to draw continually on an ever-increasing supply of professional manpower: the question of the teacher as manager relates to the total school personnel, which may well, in the future, contain a larger proportion of non-teaching staff.

The prime teaching resource is, of course, the teacher himself: it is a resource which is initially expensively trained, but afterwards ludicrously maintained. The initial national cost of training a teacher is to be measured in thousands of pounds. His inservice training at the moment is measured in shillings. For the future, it seems clear that colleges of education will play an increasing part in the regular inservice training programme for the profession. Here it is important to remember, as William Taylor rightly remarks in the chapter on Teachers as Resources, that in-service training often needs to be school-based, even if this is taken to refer purely to the physical use of school premises.

The production of materials on a large scale, which may serve as additional resources in the learning situation, is a task of considerable complexity, whether approached on a regional or national level: once again management decisions are necessary. Evaluation and curricular analysis are additional vectors in the total situation.

The symposium is not supplied with an index, but George Taylor concludes with a convenient aide-memoire on general conclusions. One conclusion is certain—the first task of the intending teacher-manager must be to acquaint himself with this volume.

W.S.F.

Developing a New Curriculum

by A. G. Howson (Ed.)

Heinemann. £1.50

Those who have taught in and administered schools overseas will agree with President Nyerere of Tanzania who is quoted in this book: 'What we need to do now is to think first about the education we want to provide, and when that thinking is completed, think about whether some form of examination is an appropriate way of closing an education phase'. The pattern of education imposed first by missions and then by colonial governments was that of 19th Century Britain—and let us not forget that much of it was good, and that there were many dedicated educationists in Africa and elsewhere in colonial days—but today, when there have been such rapid curriculum changes in the West, the emergent nations are justifiably anxious to adopt new principles and new methods. The difficulty, as C. E. Beeby points out in this book, is that teachers with a bare primary education, who constitute a large part of the teaching force in many nations, can hardly be expected to change easily from a secure and didactic approach to one of greater flexibility, which is likely to expose their own limitations. Dr Beeby's chapter on curriculum planning is one of three very important contributions to the cause of curriculum change overseas in this collection of studies commissioned by the Centre for Curriculum Renewal and Educational Developments Overseas. The other two are on Curriculum Development, by Robert Morris and A. G. Howson, and on a study of the contribution by British agencies towards curriculum development overseas, by Professor J. F. Kerr. The rest of the book is devoted to examples of curriculum and examination changes in Britain—French in the primary school and CSE Mode III in operation—and overseas: in the Ceylon Curriculum Development Centre; the joint schools project of the Mathematical Association of Ghana; the changes in examination content for developing countries and the assumption of responsibility by overseas boards.

As Brian Young writes in his foreword, 'CREDO has always insisted that its role was to be an exporter not of British work but what may be learnt from British experience' and this book is successful in describing both successes and failures in Britain and abroad in unpatronising and realistic terms, in which the difficulties are not glossed over, and although much important and practical experience has been distilled—for example, how to initiate and plan a project, the needs of the Director and team, the trying out of materials—the fundamental issue, of how to re-educate a whole generation of teachers, is never forgotten. Beeby sums this up when he writes: 'If by "curriculum" is meant nothing more than the printed official syllabus, I have no faith in its power to change anything at all. In my experience the average teacher has a very great capacity for going on doing the same thing under a different name. If he does not understand the new demands being made on him, I think he is right. . . .' We would all do well to remember this, whether we work at home or abroad, and this excellent little book should be required reading for all those interested in developing a new curriculum, irrespective of hemisphere.

P.C.

Guidance in Comprehensive Schools

by B. M. Moore

NFER £1.40

Catering as they do for children of all abilities who are leaving school at different ages, comprehensive schools need to prepare pupils for a wide range of further and higher education and career opportunities—from technical and commercial opportunities at 15 to a more sophisticated variety at 18. The author, a research officer with the Foundation, carried out a detailed survey of how guidance systems were operated in five comprehensive schools in different parts of England. His report is intended as a handbook for teachers and college staffs concerned about problems and issues in the field of guidance and counselling and with training and development.

The Teacher

E. B. Castle

OUP. 60p.

The Teacher at Work

W. A. Dodd (Ed.)

OUP. 50p.

Within a compass of two hundred and forty-six pages the author has succeeded in covering a great deal of ground. The reader will however need to judge to what extent Professor Castle has contrived to match the irreconcilables of comprehensiveness and conciseness: thus one must inevitably ask whether anything of value can, for instance, be said about Plato within the compass of two or three pages. The problem becomes more acute when the writer as in this case, chooses to devote an equivalent amount of space to Von Fellenberg's experiments at Hofwyl. An author's sense of relevance and perspective must also be called into question when it is observed that both the birth of positivism and of dialectical materialism are completely ignored; in the twentieth century, G. H. Bantock, J. S. Bruner and W. D. Wall receive mention, but this is at the expense of the whole of the work of Piaget, whose contribution to education is completely omitted, not only in the text but also in the bibliography.

In *The Teacher at Work* a different approach is adopted: here we have a compilation of thirteen lectures delivered under the auspices of the London University Department of Education in Tropical Areas. A wide range of topics is covered and the material is presented in a form which is relevant to educational practice in the developing countries. Under

In our last issue we said that the film *Classroom of the Air* was available free of charge from the Educational Foundation for Visual Aids. In fact there is a hiring fee of £2 per day plus 50p for each additional day and postage of 22½p.

Success in Spelling

by Margaret L. Peters

Cambridge Inst. of Education £0.90

This is the fourth in a series of monographs on education from the Cambridge Institute.* The investigation covered a complete age group in one LEA in the last two years of primary school. The analysis suggests that actual spelling ability can most strongly be predicted by verbal intelligence and good visual perception together with care and speed in writing. Variables such as use of a rule-following approach, generalising ability, socio-economic status, and family order and size are also indicative of ability. In the case of progress in spelling the last three variables were found to be only slightly predictive. A separate investigation of the effect on spelling of different methods of teaching reading is also reported.

* No 1. *The Lecture Method.* No 2. *Instructional Simulation Systems in Higher Education.* No 3. *Students Attitudes and College Environments.*

Ita: What is the Evidence?

by Vera Southgate

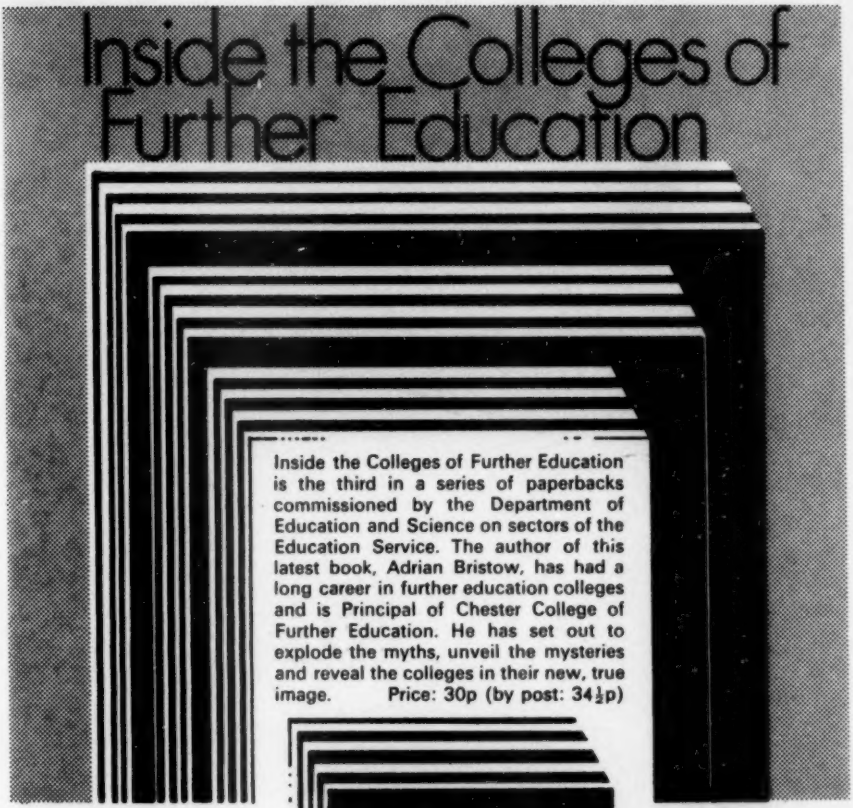
W & R Chambers and John Murray £0.45

This little book by one of the authors of *Ita: An Independent Evaluation*, published in 1969 (price 80s) asks a series of questions about the use of the Initial Teaching Alphabet in teaching reading. The questions are those that the author thinks parents and teachers would most like to have answered about *Ita* such as, 'What is the effect on children's initial reading progress?' and 'How are spelling and free writing affected?' The author answers each question with a digest of the research findings in the original Southgate/Warburton report, giving page references and occasionally quoting from the text. The book is a useful brief guide for those without the time or inclination to read the original.

M.C.

DD 501572. K84

Inside the Colleges of Further Education



Inside the Colleges of Further Education is the third in a series of paperbacks commissioned by the Department of Education and Science on sectors of the Education Service. The author of this latest book, Adrian Bristow, has had a long career in further education colleges and is Principal of Chester College of Further Education. He has set out to explode the myths, unveil the mysteries and reveal the colleges in their new, true image. Price: 30p (by post: 34½p)

Also available:

INSIDE THE PRIMARY SCHOOL
by John Blackie,
formerly Chief Inspector of Primary Schools.

Price: 25p (by post: 29½p)

INSIDE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS
by Tyrrell Burgess,
a former director of the Advisory Centre for Education.

Price: 30p (by post: 35½p)

All these publications are available from HMSO, PO Box 569, LONDON, SE1, or any bookseller.

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